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# LABOR BULLETINS

OF THE

## COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

These Bulletins contain a large variety of interesting and pertinent matter on the Social and Industrial Condition of the Workingman, together with leading articles on the Condition of Employment, Earnings, etc. The following numbers are the only ones now remaining in print, and will be forwarded upon receipt of five cents each to cover the cost of postage.

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**No. 31, May, 1904.** City Labor in Massachusetts—Review of Employment and Earnings for Six Months ending April 30, 1904—Average Retail Prices in 17 Cities—Bi-monthly Record of Strikes and Lockouts—Editorial, Rev. Jesse H. Jones—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Open and Closed Shop—Labor Legislation in Other States and Foreign Countries—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

**No. 32, July, 1904.** Child Labor in the United States and Massachusetts—Net Profits of Labor and Capital—The Inheritance Tax—Absence after Pay Day—Pay of Navy Yard Workmen—Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1904—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Eight-hour Workday—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

**No. 36, June, 1905.** Tramps and Vagrants. Census of 1905—The Loom System—Weekly Day of Rest—Wages and Hours of Labor on Public Works—The Census Enumerators of 1905—Average Retail Prices, October and April—Semi-annual Record of Strikes and Lockouts: Six Months ending April 30, 1905—Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1905—Current Comment on Labor Questions: Profit Sharing—Industrial Agreements—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

**No. 42, July, 1906.** Non-Collectable Indebtedness—Pawnbrokers' Pledges—

Hours of Labor in Certain Occupations—Labor Legislation in 1906—Current Comment on Labor Questions: The Inheritance Tax—Industrial Information—Industrial Agreements—Trade Union Notes—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest—Statistical Abstracts.

**No. 43, September, 1906.** Organization of Trade Schools—Textile Schools in the United States—Convention of Labor Bureaus—Maternity Aid—Stone-meal as a Fertilizer—Injunctions against Strikes and Lockouts—Industrial Information—Industrial Agreements—Trade Union Notes—Recent Legal Labor Decisions—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Trade Union Directory for 1906.

**No. 45, January, 1907.** Income and Inheritance Taxes—Child Labor and the Census—Cotton Manufacturing in Massachusetts in 1850 and 1905—Railroad Pensions in the United States and Canada—Convict Labor in Massachusetts—The President on Labor Matters—Trade Union Notes—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Industrial Agreements—Current Comment: Old-age Pensions—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Magazine Articles on Labor Topics, 1906.

**No. 46, February, 1907.** Unemployment in Massachusetts—State Free Employment Office—Insurance against Unemployment in Foreign Countries—The Metropolitan District—Population: Boston and Massachusetts—Labor Legislation: United States and Canada, 1906—Industrial Agreements—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Industrial Information.

**No. 47, March, 1907.** Boston's Tax-payers—Distributive Co-operation in New England—Industrial Education for Shoe Workers—Technical Education: England and the United States—Females in Gainful Occupations, 1895, 1905—Strikes and Lockouts: Massachusetts, 1905-06.—State Free Employment Office—Labor Legislation in Foreign Countries, 1906—Current Comment: Large versus Small Families—Trade Union Notes—Industrial Agreements—Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor—Excerpts—Statistical Abstracts—Industrial Information.

# LABOR BULLETIN

OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF

## MASSACHUSETTS

No. 48

APRIL, 1907.

CONTAINING:

Manufactures: Massachusetts and Other States. No. 1.	Trade Union Notes.
The German Workman.	Industrial Agreements.
Business Advertising.	Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor.
Postal Savings Banks.	Excerpts.
State Free Employment Office.	Statistical Abstracts.
	Industrial Information.

PUBLISHED BY THE

BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

*April 1907*  
CHAS. F. RIDGIN, *Chief.*

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WM. G. GRUNDY, *Second Clerk.*



BOSTON:

WRIGHT & POTTER PRINTING CO., STATE PRINTERS,  
18 POST OFFICE SQUARE.

1907.

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# MASSACHUSETTS LABOR BULLETIN.

AN OFFICIAL PUBLICATION, ISSUED MONTHLY, FROM THE OFFICE OF THE MASSACHUSETTS BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR, ROOMS 250-258, STATE HOUSE, BOSTON.

VOL. XI, No. 4.

APRIL, 1907.

WHOLE NO. 48.

*Editor: CHAS. F. PIDGIN, Chief of Bureau.*

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## MANUFACTURES:

MASSACHUSETTS AND OTHER STATES, 1900-1905.

No. 1. Comparison for Certain Industries.

From the returns of the United States Census of 1905 we have selected for comparison some twenty-one industries which are of interest. The figures for Massachusetts are printed in full-face type and show for each industry the rank of the State based upon the returns for 1905. The percentage of the output in each industry in the several States as compared with the total product for that industry for the United States is given, the latter being considered 100 per cent. Comparisons with 1900 are also shown and the percentages of increase or decrease noted. In the last two columns are given the percentages of product in each State as compared with the total product for the United States in the years 1900 and 1905.

The first industry considered is boots and shoes.

### Boots and Shoes.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES,	-	\$258,969,580	\$320,107,458	+23.61	100.00	100.00
Massachusetts,	1	117,115,243	144,291,426	+23.20	45.22	45.08
New York,	2	25,585,631	34,137,049	+33.42	9.88	10.66
Ohio,	3	17,920,854	25,140,220	+40.28	6.92	7.85
Michigan,	4	11,253,202	23,493,552	+108.77	4.35	7.34
Ne. Hampshire,	5	23,405,558	22,425,700	-4.19	9.04	7.01
Pennsylvania,	6	13,235,933	14,607,867	+10.37	5.11	4.56
Maine,	7	12,295,847	12,351,293	+0.45	4.75	3.86
Illinois,	8	9,375,842	9,026,238	-3.73	3.62	2.82
New Jersey,	9	6,978,043	6,977,300	-0.01	2.69	2.18
Wisconsin,	10	4,791,684	6,513,563	+35.93	1.85	2.04
Minnesota,	11	3,615,801	4,169,732	+15.32	1.40	1.30
Other States,	-	13,395,942	16,973,518	+26.71	5.17	5.30

In the manufacture of boots and shoes, Massachusetts is the ranking State, the value of product in 1905 showing an increase over 1900 of 23.20 per cent, which was only fractionally less than the increase shown for the United States as a whole. Massachusetts in both Census years manufactured nearly one-half of the boot and shoe product of the country,

and its proportion of the total for the United States was only relatively less in 1905 than in 1900 by fourteen one-hundredths of one per cent. New York, Ohio, Missouri, and Wisconsin show percentages of increase greater than that shown for Massachusetts, but the value of product in the latter State is more than four times greater than that of her nearest competitor. The greatest per cent of gain, 108.77, is shown for Missouri, changing the rank of that State from seventh place in 1900 to fourth place in 1905.

The next industry considered is canning and preserving fish.

#### Canning and Preserving Fish.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$21,999,249	\$26,377,210	+19.90	100.00	100.00
Alaska, . . .	1	3,821,136	7,735,782	+102.47	17.37	29.33
Maine, . . .	2	4,779,733	5,055,091	+5.76	21.73	19.16
Massachusetts, .	3	4,619,362	4,598,444	-0.45	21.00	17.43
Washington, . . .	4	4,831,038	3,187,149	-34.03	21.96	12.08
Oregon, . . .	5	1,788,809	2,577,746	+44.10	8.13	9.77
New York, . . .	6	197,869	1,300,425	+557.22	0.90	4.93
California, . . .	7	866,432	788,438	-9.00	3.94	2.99
Louisiana, . . .	8	144,379	410,259	+184.15	0.66	1.56
Wisconsin, . . .	9	35,792	259,324	+624.53	0.16	0.98
Michigan, . . .	10	65,077	94,150	+44.67	0.29	0.36
Virginia, . . .	11	24,700	92,043	+272.64	0.11	0.35
Other States, . . .	-	824,922	278,359	+66.26	3.75	1.06

Massachusetts has usually been considered a leading State in the industry of canning and preserving fish, but according to the figures in the foregoing table the State ranks third in this consideration. A loss is shown of 0.45 per cent in comparing 1905 with 1900, and the relative proportion of the total product for the country for this industry dropped from 21 per cent in 1900 to 17.43 per cent in 1905. The greatest percentages of increase are found in Wisconsin, New York, Virginia, Louisiana, and Alaska, in the order named, the figures being 624.53, 557.22, 272.64, 184.15, and 102.47 per cent, respectively.

The next industry considered is carpets and rugs.

#### Carpets and Rugs (Other than Rag).

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$48,192,351	\$61,586,433	+27.79	100.00	100.00
Pennsylvania, . . .	1	23,113,058	27,120,311	+17.34	47.96	44.04
New York, . . .	2	15,029,218	19,404,133	+29.11	31.19	31.51
Massachusetts, .	3	6,966,237	9,713,978	+39.44	14.45	15.77
New Jersey, . . .	4	1,522,827	1,748,831	+14.84	3.16	2.84
Other States, . . .	-	1,561,011	3,599,180	+130.57	3.24	5.84

It will be noted that the combined product of three States (Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts) represents over 91 per cent of the total value of all carpets and rugs manufactured in the United States in 1905, only nine per cent being produced outside of these States. The

States retain the same relative rank in 1905 as in 1900, slight percental gains being shown for both Massachusetts and New York.

The production of carriages and wagons is shown in the following table:

#### Carriages and Wagons.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U.S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$113,234,590	\$125,332,976	+10.68	100.00	100.00
Michigan, .	1	11,205,602	20,097,704	+79.35	9.90	16.04
Ohio, .	2	15,616,926	16,096,125	+3.07	13.79	12.84
Indiana, .	3	12,661,217	15,228,337	+20.28	11.18	12.15
New York, .	4	12,261,863	12,573,145	+2.54	10.83	10.03
Illinois, .	5	8,275,639	9,798,965	+18.41	7.31	7.82
Wisconsin, .	6	6,839,963	7,511,392	+9.82	6.04	5.99
Missouri, .	7	5,477,151	6,551,130	+19.61	4.84	5.23
<b>Massachusetts, .</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>6,118,121</b>	<b>4,179,724</b>	<b>-31.68</b>	<b>5.40</b>	<b>3.33</b>
Kentucky, .	9	2,849,713	4,059,438	+42.45	2.52	3.24
Iowa, .	10	3,728,027	2,974,043	-20.22	3.29	2.37
North Carolina, .	11	1,055,292	2,304,065	+118.33	0.93	1.84
Other States, .	-	27,145,076	23,958,905	-11.74	23.97	19.12

Massachusetts ranks eighth in the order of States producing carriages and wagons, and is one of the States showing a decrease in the value of product in 1905 as compared with 1900. Michigan exhibits an increase of 79.35 per cent and rose from fourth position in 1900 to first place in 1905. Massachusetts meanwhile fell from seventh to eighth place.

The manufacture of cigars and cigarettes is shown in the next table.

#### Cigars and Cigarettes.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U.S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$159,958,811	\$214,350,051	+34.00	100.00	100.00
New York, .	1	49,028,479	60,623,617	+23.65	30.65	28.28
Pennsylvania, .	2	31,483,141	39,079,122	+24.13	19.68	18.23
Florida, .	3	10,735,826	16,764,276	+56.15	6.71	7.82
Ohio, .	4	11,239,824	13,241,230	+17.81	7.03	6.18
Illinois, .	5	8,741,483	11,669,485	+33.50	5.46	5.44
New Jersey, .	6	2,647,595	8,331,611	+214.69	1.66	3.89
Michigan, .	7	5,498,982	7,995,230	+45.39	3.44	3.73
<b>Massachusetts, .</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>5,298,390</b>	<b>6,577,810</b>	<b>+24.15</b>	<b>3.31</b>	<b>3.07</b>
Virginia, .	9	4,843,641	6,105,936	+26.06	3.03	2.85
Maryland, .	10	2,840,319	4,648,003	+63.64	1.78	2.17
Iowa, .	11	2,576,384	3,187,522	+23.72	1.61	1.49
Missouri, .	12	2,745,986	3,047,760	+10.99	1.72	1.42
North Carolina, .	13	229,844	2,599,248	+1,030.87	0.14	1.21
Kentucky, .	14	1,506,559	1,796,049	+19.22	0.94	0.84
Nebraska, .	15	702,037	899,867	+28.18	0.44	0.42
Other States, .	-	19,840,321	27,783,285	+40.03	12.40	12.96

In the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes Massachusetts finds place eighth in rank in the United States, the product in 1905 being \$6,577,810, or an increase as compared with 1900 of 24.15 per cent. As compared with the United States, Massachusetts produced 3.31 per cent of the total output in 1900 and 3.07 per cent in 1905. While New York leads all the other States in the value of product, over 11 States showed a larger percentage of increase in 1905 as compared with 1900. The largest percentage of increase shown in any State appears in North Carolina, the

gain amounting to 1,030.87 per cent. The next largest percentage of increase is found in New Jersey, a gain of 214.69 per cent in 1905 as compared with 1900 being shown. The percentage of increase for the United States as a whole was 34, and was exceeded in only five of the States.

The next table shows a comparison for the manufacture of men's clothing.

#### Clothing (Men's).

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$276,717,357	\$355,796,571	+28.58	100.00	100.00
New York, .	1	126,478,057	167,167,536	+32.17	45.71	46.98
Illinois, .	2	37,378,717	55,202,999	+47.69	13.51	15.52
Pennsylvania, .	3	23,389,043	22,662,115	-3.11	8.45	6.37
Maryland, .	4	17,327,825	19,654,916	+13.43	6.26	5.52
Ohio, .	5	16,593,824	18,496,173	+11.46	6.00	5.20
Massachusetts, .	6	9,830,954	13,028,012	+32.52	3.55	3.66
Missouri, .	7	8,925,088	8,872,831	-0.59	3.22	2.49
Wisconsin, .	8	4,393,092	6,525,276	+48.53	1.59	1.83
Kentucky, .	9	3,420,365	6,279,078	+83.58	1.24	1.77
Indiana, .	10	3,367,831	4,044,053	+20.08	1.22	1.14
Other States, .	-	25,612,561	33,863,582	+32.21	9.25	9.52

Massachusetts held the rank of the sixth manufacturing State in the production of clothing for men's wear both in 1900 and in 1905. New York is, however, the stronghold of this industry and still maintains the sweat-shop system, which has been successfully banished from Massachusetts. The gain in Massachusetts in 1905 as compared with 1900 of 32.52 per cent compares very favorably with the gain shown by New York of 32.17 per cent. Illinois, with the sweat shop also within her borders, exhibits the large gain of 47.69 per cent, and Wisconsin, although having a much smaller product value, exhibits an increase of 48.53 per cent. The greatest percentage of gain is shown in Kentucky, which increased its product value 83.58 per cent in five years.

The next industry considered is that of women's clothing.

#### Clothing (Women's).

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$159,339,539	\$247,661,560	+55.43	100.00	100.00
New York, .	1	106,892,390	173,548,385	+62.36	67.08	70.08
Pennsylvania, .	2	11,694,580	15,085,790	+29.00	7.34	6.09
Ohio, .	3	7,772,771	12,803,582	+64.72	4.88	5.17
Illinois, .	4	9,774,774	12,236,618	+25.19	6.14	4.94
Massachusetts, .	5	5,201,650	8,696,044	+67.18	3.26	3.51
Maryland, .	6	2,685,576	3,195,498	+18.99	1.69	1.29
Other States, .	-	15,317,798	22,095,643	+44.25	9.61	8.92

In this industry New York leads, producing over 70 per cent of women's clothing in the United States in 1905. Massachusetts ranks fifth, the same position it held in 1900.

We next consider the manufacture of confectionery.

## Confectionery.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$60,643,946	\$87,087,253	+43.60	100.00	100.00
New York, .	1	13,610,904	18,236,587	+33.99	22.44	20.94
Pennsylvania, .	2	7,483,284	10,073,164	+34.61	12.34	11.57
Massachusetts, .	3	5,794,801	9,317,996	+60.80	9.56	10.70
Illinois, .	4	6,460,586	7,645,621	+18.34	10.65	8.78
Utah, .	5	403,379	1,004,601	+149.05	0.67	1.15
Other States, .	-	26,890,992	40,809,284	+51.76	44.34	46.86

In the manufacture of confectionery Massachusetts rose in 1905 from fourth place to third, producing over ten per cent of the total product, while New York and Pennsylvania, although not losing the rank of first and second place, respectively, in this industry, both show slight decline in their relative proportion of the total output as will be seen from the last two columns of the table. Utah exhibits a percentage of increase of 149.05.

The following table exhibits the conditions for cotton goods as regards total value of product:

## Cotton Goods.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$339,200,320	\$450,467,704	+32.80	100.00	100.00
Massachusetts, .	1	110,478,327	129,171,449	+16.92	32.57	28.68
South Carolina, .	2	29,723,919	49,437,644	+66.32	8.76	10.97
North Carolina, .	3	28,372,798	47,254,054	+66.55	8.36	10.49
Georgia, .	4	18,457,645	35,174,248	+90.57	5.44	7.81
Rhode Island, .	5	24,056,175	30,628,843	+27.32	7.09	6.80
New Hampshire, .	6	22,998,249	29,540,770	+28.45	6.78	6.56
Pennsylvania, .	7	23,421,470	24,136,813	+3.05	6.91	5.36
Connecticut, .	8	15,489,442	18,239,155	+17.75	4.57	4.05
Alabama, .	9	8,153,136	16,760,332	+105.57	2.40	3.72
Maine, .	10	14,631,086	15,405,823	+5.30	4.31	3.42
New York, .	11	13,433,904	10,788,003	+24.53	3.18	2.98
New Jersey, .	12	6,540,289	8,578,527	+31.16	1.93	1.90
Maryland, .	13	5,423,251	5,244,742	-3.29	1.60	1.16
Virginia, .	14	2,655,002	4,484,131	+68.89	0.78	1.00
Tennessee, .	15	1,994,935	3,560,984	+78.50	0.59	0.79
Mississippi, .	16	1,472,835	2,462,808	+67.22	0.43	0.55
Vermont, .	17	999,886	1,086,522	+8.66	0.30	0.24
Other States, .	-	13,543,872	15,866,955	+17.15	4.00	3.52

As in the past, Massachusetts leads in rank in the manufacture of cotton goods, but whereas she produced 32.57 per cent of the total cotton manufactures in 1900, the percentage fell to 28.68 in 1905. While these figures may seem to indicate a threatening of her supremacy in this regard, it should be stated that the falling off was due in large measure to the fact that in 1905 a general strike among the operatives in Fall River resulted in closing the mills temporarily for a period extending over three months. Other Northern States suffered to some extent, while all of the Southern States show gains in rank that are instructive. In comparing 1905 with 1900, we find an increase of nearly 17 per cent in Massachusetts, about 18 per cent in Connecticut, 27+ per cent in Rhode Island,

and 28+ per cent in New Hampshire, while side by side with these we find increases of 66.32 per cent in South Carolina, 66.55 per cent in North Carolina, 67.22 per cent in Mississippi, 68.89 per cent in Virginia, 78.50 per cent in Tennessee, 90.57 per cent in Georgia, and 105.57 per cent in Alabama. The general increase for the whole United States was 32.80 per cent, nearly twice as great as that shown for this Commonwealth; in fact, no Northern State reached the percentage shown for the country as a whole, while with the exception of Maryland each of the Southern States shown in the above table exceeded this percentage.

The next comparison is for the manufacture of electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.

#### Electrical Machinery, Apparatus, and Supplies.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$92,434,435	\$140,809,369	+ 52.33	100.00	100.00
New York, .	1	22,695,024	35,348,276	+ 55.75	24.55	25.10
Pennsylvania, .	2	19,112,665	26,257,569	+ 37.38	20.68	18.65
Illinois, .	3	12,169,425	16,700,027	+ 37.23	13.16	11.86
<b>Massachusetts, .</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>10,490,361</b>	<b>15,388,216</b>	<b>+ 51.40</b>	<b>11.35</b>	<b>11.28</b>
New Jersey, .	5	7,532,700	13,803,476	+ 83.25	8.15	9.80
Ohio, .	6	6,504,847	11,019,235	+ 69.40	7.04	7.83
Rhode Island, .	7	5,113,292	5,435,474	+ 6.30	5.53	3.86
Connecticut, .	8	3,167,842	4,939,831	+ 55.94	3.43	3.51
Other States, .	-	5,648,279	11,423,265	+ 102.24	6.11	8.11

In both 1900 and 1905 Massachusetts ranked fourth in the production of electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies, the output in each year being about eleven and one-third per cent of the value of goods made as shown for the United States. Evidently the possibilities of electricity, so far as machinery and supplies are concerned, are being developed by all of the leading States.

The next industry to be considered is hosiery and knit goods.

#### Hosiery and Knit Goods.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$95,482,566	\$136,558,139	+ 43.02	100.00	100.00
New York, .	1	35,886,048	46,108,600	+ 28.49	37.59	33.77
Pennsylvania, .	2	21,896,063	30,753,140	+ 40.45	22.93	22.52
<b>Massachusetts, .</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6,620,257</b>	<b>10,081,852</b>	<b>+ 52.29</b>	<b>6.93</b>	<b>7.38</b>
Connecticut, .	4	4,043,977	5,371,452	+ 32.83	4.24	3.93
New Hampshire, .	5	2,592,829	3,974,290	+ 53.28	2.72	2.91
Rhode Island, .	6	2,713,850	3,344,655	+ 23.24	2.84	2.45
New Jersey, .	7	1,748,148	2,539,178	+ 45.25	1.83	1.86
North Carolina, .	8	1,023,150	2,483,827	+ 142.76	1.07	1.82
Virginia, .	9	1,498,066	2,107,602	+ 40.69	1.57	1.54
Tennessee, .	10	395,150	1,627,823	+ 311.95	0.41	1.19
Vermont, .	11	1,834,685	1,988,685	+ 8.39	1.92	1.46
South Carolina, .	12	392,237	1,078,682	+ 175.01	0.41	0.79
Other States, .	-	14,838,106	25,098,353	+ 69.15	15.54	18.38

In this industry, while led in rank by New York and Pennsylvania, nevertheless the percentage of gain for Massachusetts in 1905 was greater than that shown by either of these States. The Southern States, although

far behind their Northern neighbors in value of product, exhibit percentages of increase in 1905 as compared with 1900 as follows: Tennessee, 311.95; South Carolina, 175.01; North Carolina, 142.76; and Virginia, 40.69.

The manufacture of jewelry is shown in the following table:

#### Jewelry.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$46,128,659	\$53,225,681	+15.39	100.00	100.00
Rhode Island, .	1	13,229,313	14,431,756	+9.09	28.68	27.11
New York, .	2	10,244,624	12,356,865	+20.62	22.21	23.22
<b>Massachusetts, .</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>10,299,844</b>	<b>10,073,595</b>	<b>-2.20</b>	<b>22.33</b>	<b>18.93</b>
New Jersey, .	4	7,377,147	9,303,646	+26.11	15.99	17.48
Other States, .	-	4,977,731	7,059,819	+41.83	10.79	13.26

Massachusetts held the rank of the second manufacturing State in this line of goods in 1900 and within five years was displaced by New York, which State shows gain in product value of over 20 per cent. And whereas in 1900 Massachusetts produced 22.33 per cent of the jewelry in the United States, in 1905 the proportion dropped to 18.93 per cent, about one and one-half per cent more than our nearest competitor, viz., New Jersey.

The facts for leather: tanned, curried, and finished, are given in the following table:

#### Leather: Tanned, Curried, and Finished.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$204,038,127	\$252,020,986	+23.81	100.00	100.00
Pennsylvania, .	1	55,615,009	69,427,852	+24.84	27.26	27.48
<b>Massachusetts, .</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>26,067,714</b>	<b>33,352,999</b>	<b>+27.95</b>	<b>12.77</b>	<b>13.20</b>
Wisconsin, .	3	20,074,373	25,845,123	+28.75	9.84	10.23
New York, .	4	23,205,991	21,642,945	-6.74	11.37	8.57
New Jersey, .	5	13,747,155	21,495,329	+56.36	6.74	8.51
Illinois, .	6	7,847,835	10,758,196	+37.08	3.85	4.26
Delaware, .	7	9,400,504	10,250,842	+9.05	4.61	4.06
Michigan, .	8	6,015,590	9,340,349	+55.27	2.95	3.70
California, .	9	7,405,981	8,072,257	+9.00	3.63	3.19
Ohio, .	10	5,182,065	6,512,754	+25.68	2.54	2.58
West Virginia, .	11	3,210,753	6,061,509	+88.79	1.57	2.40
Virginia, .	12	4,716,920	5,829,812	+23.59	2.31	2.31
Kentucky, .	13	3,757,016	3,952,277	+5.20	1.84	1.56
Tennessee, .	14	2,802,117	3,583,871	+27.90	1.37	1.42
North Carolina, .	15	1,502,378	2,662,174	+77.20	0.74	1.05
Maine, .	16	2,451,713	2,500,146	+1.96	1.20	0.99
Other States, .	-	11,035,013	11,332,551	+2.70	5.41	4.49

The increase for the United States in the year 1905, as compared with the figures for 1900, is 23.81 per cent. Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, which rank first and second respectively, so far as total product is concerned, exhibit increases of 24.84 and 27.95 per cent in the five year period, and Wisconsin, which ranks third, shows a gain of 28.75 per cent. Other gains which are larger than that shown for the United States, and larger than those shown for Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, are West Virginia, 88.79 per cent; North Carolina, 77.20 per

cent; New Jersey, 56.36 per cent; Michigan, 55.27 per cent; and Illinois, 37.08 per cent. Massachusetts produced 12.77 per cent of the total product in 1900 and 13.20 per cent in 1905. Pennsylvania at the same periods produced 27.26 and 27.48 per cent, respectively.

The next industry to be considered is malt liquors.

#### Liquors (Malt).

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES,	-	\$236,914,914	\$298,358,732	+25.93	100.00	100.00
New York,	1	56,137,854	61,958,142	+10.37	23.70	20.77
Pennsylvania,	2	29,162,743	34,863,823	+19.55	12.31	11.68
Wisconsin,	3	19,394,709	28,692,340	+47.94	8.19	9.62
Missouri,	4	13,776,905	24,154,264	+75.32	5.82	8.10
Illinois,	5	19,733,821	23,787,036	+20.54	8.33	7.97
Ohio,	6	18,167,840	21,620,794	+19.01	7.67	7.25
New Jersey,	7	14,386,456	17,446,447	+21.27	6.07	5.85
Massachusetts,	8	11,255,613	11,080,944	-1.55	4.75	3.71
California,	9	5,085,462	7,510,958	+47.69	2.15	2.52
Michigan,	10	5,296,825	6,999,251	+32.14	2.24	2.35
Indiana,	11	5,777,047	6,196,395	+7.26	2.44	2.08
Minnesota,	12	4,456,928	6,177,528	+38.61	1.88	2.07
Maryland,	13	4,133,797	4,967,063	+20.16	1.74	1.66
Washington,	14	1,230,525	4,471,777	+263.40	0.52	1.50
Texas,	15	2,689,606	4,153,938	+54.44	1.14	1.39
Kentucky,	16	3,186,627	3,673,678	+15.28	1.34	1.23
Rhode Island,	17	1,880,171	2,739,676	+45.71	0.79	0.92
Iowa,	18	1,713,911	2,386,266	+39.23	0.72	0.80
Louisiana,	19	1,472,062	2,286,714	+55.34	0.62	0.77
New Hampshire,	20	1,955,628	2,254,578	+15.29	0.83	0.75
West Virginia,	21	1,113,021	2,145,503	+92.76	0.47	0.72
Colorado,	22	2,042,863	2,120,187	+3.79	0.86	0.71
Montana,	23	1,276,331	1,731,691	+35.68	0.54	0.58
Nebraska,	24	1,433,501	1,663,788	+16.06	0.60	0.56
Oregon,	25	714,242	1,118,192	+56.56	0.30	0.37
Other States,	-	9,440,426	12,157,759	+28.78	3.98	4.07

The increase in 1905 as compared with the year 1900 for the United States was 25.93 per cent. Wisconsin, Missouri, California, Michigan, Minnesota, Washington, Texas, Rhode Island, Iowa, Louisiana, West Virginia, Montana, and Oregon show percentages of increase greater than that shown for the United States as a whole. Massachusetts, on the basis of goods made in 1905, ranks but eighth in the States and shows a decrease as compared with 1900 of 1.55 per cent. Considering the total product of this industry in the United States as 100 per cent, the proportion for Massachusetts was 4.75 per cent in 1900, as against 3.71 per cent in 1905. The State of New York leads. The largest percental increase, 263.40, is shown for the State of Washington.

The next comparison is for musical instruments and materials.

#### Musical Instruments and Materials.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES,	-	\$44,418,978	\$69,574,340	+56.63	100.00	100.00
New York,	1	14,746,431	23,389,504	+58.61	33.20	33.62
Illinois,	2	8,156,445	13,323,358	+63.35	18.36	19.15
Massachusetts,	3	6,171,551	8,278,628	+34.14	13.89	11.90
Connecticut,	4	3,395,768	5,272,835	+55.28	7.65	7.58
Other States,	-	11,948,783	19,310,015	+61.61	26.90	27.75

In this industry the manufactured product of Massachusetts in 1905 was \$8,278,628, an increase over the previous Census of 34.14 per cent. Of the total value of all goods made in this industry in 1900, Massachusetts produced 13.89 per cent as against 11.90 per cent in 1905. The percentage of increase for the entire United States was 56.63, and this percentage was exceeded by both New York and Illinois.

The next industry under consideration is paper and wood pulp.

#### Paper and Wood Pulp.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$127,326,162	\$188,715,189	+ 48.21	100.00	100.00
New York, .	1	26,715,628	37,750,605	+ 41.31	20.98	20.00
Massachusetts, .	2	22,141,461	32,012,247	+ 44.58	17.39	16.96
Maine, .	3	13,223,275	22,951,124	+ 73.57	10.38	12.16
Wisconsin, .	4	10,895,576	17,844,174	+ 63.77	8.56	9.45
Pennsylvania, .	5	12,267,900	15,411,032	+ 25.62	9.63	8.17
Ohio, .	6	6,543,513	10,961,527	+ 67.52	5.14	5.81
New Hampshire, .	7	7,244,733	8,930,291	+ 23.27	5.69	4.73
Michigan, .	8	4,217,869	7,340,631	+ 74.04	3.31	3.89
Connecticut, .	9	3,565,021	5,039,147	+ 41.35	2.80	2.67
Indiana, .	10	4,170,497	3,916,998	- 6.08	3.28	2.08
Vermont, .	11	3,384,773	3,831,448	+ 13.20	2.66	2.03
Maryland, .	12	2,589,540	3,296,348	+ 27.29	2.03	1.75
Virginia, .	13	850,386	3,034,395	+ 256.83	0.67	1.61
Delaware, .	14	1,599,718	1,904,556	+ 19.06	1.26	1.01
Oregon, .	15	1,305,696	1,530,449	+ 17.21	1.03	0.81
Other States, .	-	6,610,576	12,960,217	+ 96.05	5.19	6.87

Massachusetts ranks second among the States in the production of paper and wood pulp. The increase in 1905 as compared with 1900 was 44.58 per cent as against an increase for the whole United States of 48.21 per cent. Notwithstanding that Massachusetts has increased its value of product in the five years from 1900 to 1905, its percentage of total product shows a fractional decline, dropping from 17.39 per cent in 1900 to 16.96 per cent in 1905. The largest percental increase, 256.83, appears for Virginia.

The next industry considered is rubber and elastic goods.

#### Rubber and Elastic Goods.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$52,621,830	\$62,995,909	+ 19.71	100.00	100.00
Ohio, .	1	7,330,104	15,963,603	+ 117.78	13.93	25.34
Massachusetts, .	2	13,885,059	14,098,471	+ 1.54	26.39	22.38
Connecticut, .	3	8,246,240	8,868,353	+ 7.54	15.67	14.08
Rhode Island, .	4	2,518,268	2,582,180	+ 2.54	4.78	4.10
Other States, .	-	20,642,159	21,483,302	+ 4.07	39.23	34.10

The total value of goods made in this industry in the United States shows an increase of 19.71 per cent in the five-year census period. Massachusetts, while ranking second, shows a decrease in the proportion of total product from 26.39 per cent in 1900 to 22.38 per cent in 1905.

On the other hand, Ohio, which held third place in 1900, in 1905 leads all other named States, her product value increasing 117.78 per cent; and where in 1900 she produced somewhat more than one-seventh of the entire product of the United States, in 1905 the production amounted to more than one-fourth of the total.

The next table shows a comparison for silk and silk goods.

#### Silk and Silk Goods.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$107,256,258	\$133,288,072	+ 24.27	100.00	100.00
New Jersey, .	1	39,966,662	42,862,907	+ 7.25	37.26	32.16
Pennsylvania, .	2	31,072,926	39,333,520	+ 26.58	28.97	29.51
New York, .	3	12,706,246	20,181,212	+ 58.83	11.85	15.14
Connecticut, .	4	12,378,981	15,623,693	+ 26.21	11.54	11.72
<b>Massachusetts, .</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5,957,532</b>	<b>7,012,062</b>	<b>+ 17.70</b>	<b>5.56</b>	<b>5.26</b>
Rhode Island, .	6	1,311,333	2,555,986	+ 94.92	1.22	1.92
Other States, .	-	3,862,578	5,718,692	+ 48.05	3.60	4.29

Massachusetts holds the fifth place in the production of silk and silk goods according to the Census of 1905, and the product value shows an increase when compared with 1900 of 17.70 per cent. In 1900, Massachusetts produced 5.56 per cent of the total value produced in the United States, and in 1905 the production amounted to 5.26 per cent of the total value, showing, relatively, a slight decrease. The largest percentage of increase in 1905 as compared with 1900 appears for the State of Rhode Island, where the gain was 94.92 per cent, while the smallest is shown for New Jersey, which is the leading State producing these goods, and in which the gain amounted to but 7.25 per cent.

The next table shows a comparison for slaughtering and meat packing.

#### Slaughtering and Meat Packing (Wholesale).

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905 \$ <sup>000</sup>		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$783,779,191	\$913,914,624	+ 16.60	100.00	100.00
Illinois, .	1	279,842,835	309,853,630	+ 10.72	35.70	33.90
Kansas, .	2	77,411,883	96,375,639	+ 24.50	9.88	10.55
Nebraska, .	3	71,018,339	69,243,468	- 2.50	9.06	7.58
Missouri, .	4	43,040,855	60,031,133	+ 39.47	5.49	6.57
<b>Massachusetts, .</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>27,505,698</b>	<b>30,253,838</b>	<b>+ 9.91</b>	<b>3.51</b>	<b>3.31</b>
Iowa, .	6	25,695,044	30,074,070	+ 17.04	3.28	3.29
Indiana, .	7	43,862,273	29,352,593	- 33.08	5.60	3.21
Ohio, .	8	19,609,304	26,380,884	+ 34.53	2.50	2.89
Pennsylvania, .	9	17,826,697	24,411,797	+ 36.94	2.27	2.67
New York, .	10	19,624,187	22,807,856	+ 16.22	2.50	2.50
California, .	11	15,717,712	21,795,694	+ 38.67	2.01	2.38
Minnesota, .	12	7,810,555	17,526,707	+ 124.40	1.00	1.92
New Jersey, .	13	14,046,217	17,238,076	+ 22.72	1.79	1.89
Wisconsin, .	14	13,601,125	16,060,423	+ 18.08	1.74	1.76
Texas, .	15	3,904,491	15,620,931	+ 300.08	0.50	1.71
Maryland, .	16	5,059,374	6,332,914	+ 25.17	0.65	0.69
Washington, .	17	4,293,953	6,251,705	+ 45.59	0.55	0.68
Kentucky, .	18	5,177,167	5,693,731	+ 9.98	0.66	0.62
Michigan, .	19	3,724,761	4,901,435	+ 31.59	0.47	0.54
Colorado, .	20	4,343,983	3,323,503	- 23.49	0.55	0.36
Oregon, .	21	1,638,480	2,907,154	+ 77.43	0.21	0.32
Rhode Island, .	22	2,410,466	2,499,440	+ 3.69	0.31	0.27
Other States, .	-	76,613,762	94,978,003	+ 23.97	9.77	10.39

In the wholesale slaughtering and meat-packing establishments in the United States, comparing 1905 with 1900, an increase in the value of product of 16.60 per cent is noted. In Massachusetts, the increase was but 9.91 per cent. Only three States exhibit a decrease in the value of product,—Nebraska, where the decrease was 2.50 per cent, Colorado, showing a decrease of 23.49 per cent, and Indiana exhibiting a decrease of 33.08 per cent. The largest percentage of increase, 300.08, is found in Texas, followed by Minnesota with an increase of 124.40 per cent. The largest product value is exhibited by Illinois both for 1900 and for 1905.

The next industry considered is woolen goods.

#### Woolen Goods.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$118,430,158	\$142,196,658	+ 20.07	100.00	100.00
<b>Massachusetts, .</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>30,888,104</b>	<b>44,653,940</b>	+ 44.57	<b>26.08</b>	<b>31.40</b>
Pennsylvania, .	2	25,389,344	19,222,465	- 24.29	21.44	13.52
Maine, .	3	11,633,232	13,969,600	+ 20.08	9.82	9.82
Connecticut, .	4	8,097,218	11,166,965	+ 37.91	6.84	7.85
New Hampshire, .	5	7,624,062	11,013,982	+ 44.46	6.44	7.75
Rhode Island, .	6	5,330,550	8,163,167	+ 53.14	4.50	5.74
New York, .	7	6,715,005	7,384,755	+ 9.97	5.67	5.19
Vermont, .	8	2,572,646	4,698,405	+ 82.63	2.17	3.30
New Jersey, .	9	4,755,393	3,577,674	- 24.77	4.02	2.52
Tennessee, .	10	1,517,194	1,706,396	+ 12.47	1.28	1.20
Virginia, .	11	627,581	1,249,786	+ 99.14	0.53	0.88
Oregon, .	12	897,824	1,034,356	+ 15.21	0.76	0.73
Other States, .	-	12,382,005	14,355,167	+ 15.94	10.45	10.10

In this industry, as has been customary for a number of years past, Massachusetts leads. The increase in the value of goods made, comparing 1905 with 1900, was 44.57 per cent; and the percentage of the total for the United States was, in 1900, 26.08, and in 1905, 31.40. Only two States exhibit a decline, New Jersey, 24.77 per cent and Pennsylvania 24.29 per cent.

The final industry considered is worsted goods.

#### Worsted Goods.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Rank in 1905	VALUE OF GOODS MADE		Percentages of Increase (+) or Decrease (-) in 1905 as com- pared with 1900	PERCENTAGES OF U. S. TOTAL PRODUCT	
		1900	1905		1900	1905
UNITED STATES, .	-	\$120,314,344	\$165,745,052	+ 37.76	100.00	100.00
<b>Massachusetts, .</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>40,557,363</b>	<b>51,973,944</b>	+ 28.15	<b>33.71</b>	<b>31.36</b>
Rhode Island, .	2	33,341,329	44,477,596	+ 33.40	27.72	26.84
Pennsylvania, .	3	22,109,392	35,683,015	+ 61.39	18.38	21.53
New Jersey, .	4	6,823,721	11,925,126	+ 74.76	5.67	7.19
New York, .	5	5,958,259	7,858,622	+ 31.89	4.95	4.74
Connecticut, .	6	4,539,814	4,316,534	- 4.92	3.77	2.60
Maine, .	7	1,779,552	3,609,990	+ 102.86	1.48	2.18
Other States, .	-	5,204,914	5,900,225	+ 13.36	4.32	3.56

Massachusetts ranks first in the manufacture of worsted goods as it does in the manufacture of woolen goods. The percentage of increase in 1905 as compared with 1900 was 28.15. In 1900, Massachusetts produced

33.71 per cent of the total production in this industry in the United States, and, in 1905, 31.36 per cent. Connecticut is the only State showing a decrease in the value of goods made in this industry, and Maine shows the largest percentage of increase, viz., 102.86.

The total value of goods made, according to the United States Census of 1905, was \$14,802,147,087. The value of the product of the 21 selected industries given in the preceding tables was \$4,446,769,967, or 30.04 per cent of the total manufactured product of the United States in 1905.

The total manufactured product for 1905 for Massachusetts was \$1,124,092,051, and the total value of product in these 21 industries was \$598,329,619, or 53.23 per cent of the total product of the State.

In the four industries in which Massachusetts holds the first place in rank in 1905, the total product in the United States was \$1,078,516,872, and the product in Massachusetts was \$370,090,759, or 34.31 per cent.

In the three industries in which Massachusetts ranks second, the product in the United States was \$504,332,084, and the product of Massachusetts was \$79,463,717, or 15.76 per cent.

In the six industries in which Massachusetts ranks third, the product in the United States was \$434,409,056, and the product of Massachusetts was \$52,064,493, or 11.99 per cent.

In the one industry in which Massachusetts ranks fourth, the total product in the United States was \$140,809,369, and in Massachusetts \$15,882,216, or 11.28 per cent.

In the three industries in which Massachusetts ranks fifth, the total product in the United States was \$1,294,864,256, and in Massachusetts \$15,961,944, or 3.55 per cent.

In the one industry in which Massachusetts ranks sixth, the total product in the United States was \$355,796,571, and for Massachusetts \$13,028,012, or 3.66 per cent.

In the three industries in which Massachusetts ranks eighth, the product in the United States was \$638,041,759, and in Massachusetts \$21,838,478, or 3.42 per cent.

A close analysis of the foregoing figures brings out these salient facts: Of the 21 industries considered, Massachusetts has lost rank in but three, namely, carriages and wagons, cigars and cigarettes, and jewelry. In both the former industries she fell from seventh place to eighth, and in the latter instance from second place to third. In all the others she maintained the same relative position held in 1900, with two exceptions, where gains are noted. These are confectionery, in which she rose from fourth place to third and slaughtering and meat packing, where the gain was from sixth place to fifth.

As regards Massachusetts' share of the total product of the United States in the several industries, some losses will be noted, but they are for the most part only fractional, and where they appear to be material, as in worsted goods, the product is more than made up in the allied industry of woolen goods where the gain was from 26.08 to 31.40 per cent. In cotton goods, as has been stated, the value of product was diminished owing to the strike which unfortunately took place in the Census year 1905 and on account of which the mills, some thirty or more in number in a single city, were closed for a period extending over nearly three months.

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## THE GERMAN WORKMAN.

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An English writer, Mr. William Harbutt Dawson, who had already contributed several books to the literature on German social questions, has within a few months issued a volume of some 300 pages entitled "The German Workman: A Study in National Efficiency."<sup>1</sup> In this book Mr. Dawson has attempted, as he says in his introduction, "to show how at every turn German statesmen and philanthropists have endeavoured—and with unabated zeal are still endeavouring—to ensure and to safeguard the conditions of physical efficiency, leaving as little as possible to chance, covering as far as may be the whole range of life and action, and doing it with the thoroughness and system which are so characteristic of the German mind, and which, if English people would but believe and understand, are the key to all Germany's progress in those practical and material concerns which nowadays increasingly engross the attention of nations."

Under general headings chosen for present convenience we present below abstracts descriptive of the more important institutions considered by Mr. Dawson in the book above referred to. Attention is called to the fact that these institutions for the assistance and relief of German workmen are comprehensive in scope, closely correlated, and efficiently directed.

### RELIEF FOR THE UNEMPLOYED.

*Free Employment Bureaus.* Recognizing the necessary existence of a certain amount of unemployed labor, the German authorities have sought to facilitate employment by placing men who want work in communication with those who want workers. For this purpose free employment bureaus (*Arbeitsnachweise*) have been established. In fact, the German system of labor registration is the largest and most efficient known in any industrial State, and hardly a German town may be named which has not in regular operation an efficient labor bureau. The majority of the bureaus are independent departments of municipal or town government with separate officials and officers. The simplest system provides for mere registration of applicants for work and of employers desiring help, but the provision of convenient waiting-rooms, where the applicants for positions may register and be sheltered during the day, is very common. Several cities and towns have built large and commodious buildings especially for this branch of work. Usually no

<sup>1</sup> Published by P. S. King & Son, London, Eng., and Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

fees are charged, but in certain instances a small fee is charged for special work. The costs of the institution generally fall on the municipality or town. Applications for employment are usually considered in order of priority. In the case of unskilled workmen, the heads of households are not uncommonly given preference over single men. In dealing with skilled labor a man's capacity and his fitness for the special position offered are considered, even when the employer has made no express stipulations on the point.

There is a growing tendency and willingness on the part of the independent trade unions and guild registries to amalgamate with the public registries, thus bringing the entire work of employment in the town under one organization and roof. In Berlin the employment bureau embraces no fewer than 12 guild registries.

Germany has brought to a great degree of efficiency the co-ordination of labor registration, and several of the States and many of the municipalities and towns have instituted regular exchanges of lists of applicants and positions to be filled. This interchange of lists has not greatly encouraged the indiscriminate migration of workpeople, nor have agricultural laborers been unduly attracted to the cities thereby.

Of the free employment offices in Germany that at Munich (to a description of which Mr. Dawson has devoted an entire chapter) has done, perhaps, the most effective work, and has served, in many respects, as an example for other bureaus to follow.

For the employment bureaus of Germany, as a whole, both public and private, a large measure of success may be claimed. They are without exception readily used by workpeople, although less willingly by the employers of labor. Exact figures for the whole of the Empire are not available, but Prussia alone had, in 1903, no fewer than 276 labor registries, either communal in management or aided by communal subsidies, and they received 545,622 applications for work and 382,711 applications for workers and filled 272,524 vacancies. The public employment bureaus of the whole Empire are estimated to have negotiated work for no fewer than 600,000 persons during the year ending March, 1904.

*Insurance against Worklessness.* Insurance against worklessness is in reality an offshoot of the labor bureau. The system adopted by Cologne may well be taken as an example. Usually such insurance benefits are paid to persons unemployed during the Winter, and such unemployment must also be unavoidable and free from culpability. Any male workman at least 18 years of age or over may receive benefits provided he shall have paid 34 weekly contributions, amounting to a little over eight cents a week for unskilled laborers and about 11 cents a week for skilled workmen. The funds are not wholly derived from these premiums. In Cologne these funds have been established by private initiative, but receive some municipal support. No relief is paid when worklessness is the result of sickness or inability to work — since such contingencies are liberally met by the State insurance laws — nor when worklessness is the result of the insured workmen's fault or of a labor dispute. The claim to benefit is also questioned when the insured leaves the city or when it is found that he has made false declarations. Persons receiving assistance may be required to accept suitable work obtained for them by the local employment bureau.

At Leipsic the conditions are similar. There the insured persons may be as young as 17 but not older than 60 years, and they are divided into four classes, according to the risk of unemployment. Payments are made by means

of stamps pasted to membership cards (issued annually). Provision is made for the insurance of whole associations at reduced rates, with corresponding reduction in the amount of benefit paid. Munich has recently established such an insurance fund, and has decided to appropriate 35,000 marks (\$8,330) a year for three years for its support. It will be managed by a committee of 40 members, representing associated organizations, and it will work in harmony with the free employment bureau. In addition to municipal unemployment funds, labor organizations, public corporations, and individual employers have, in many instances, established such insurance funds for the benefit of their employees.

*Relief of Wandering Workers.* For the workless man who thinks he can better his prospects in a new locality, two institutions, the *Herberge* and the Relief Station, offer the traveler hospitable lodging and food by the way. The *Herberge* is a private institution supported largely by contribution, while the Relief Station is public, or semi-public in character, and is maintained at the public charge. The *Herberge* is less official in its relations towards workmen whom it aids. It attempts to meet the needs of destitute workmen and other travelers of restricted means. It requires of them habits of orderliness and cleanliness and provides good and inexpensive entertainment, and its work is conducted on a religious basis, while an attempt is made to cultivate a spirit of piety as well as good manners and morals in the persons whom it harbors. In return for the relief given, consisting of supper, night's lodging, and breakfast, the wayfarer is required to work during the following forenoon. In the afternoon he may continue his travels. By consulting a neighboring employment bureau, visitors may often find employment. Certain *Herbergen* provide accommodations for resident lodgers as well as transients, and maintain savings banks in which deposits may be made by their lodgers. These lodging houses for itinerant workmen are distributed generally throughout Germany, and in fact are not unknown in other countries.

The Relief Station is a very different type of lodging house. The accommodations provided are much less domestic and are intended principally for transients. Only those persons provided with certain papers of identification are admitted to the Relief Station, and usually lodgers are permitted to remain only one night. Work, consisting as a rule of wood sawing and chopping, is required of the lodger. This work occupies the forenoon, and after the noon-day meal the workman's passport is signed and stamped and he is sent on his way. The existence of a network of such institutions enables the workman to travel long distances in search of employment, without payment of traveling expenses or cost of subsistence.

*Labor Colonies.*<sup>1</sup> To the need of the miscellaneous crowd of unemployed, whose love of steady employment is not always above suspicion, labor colonies, conducted on either industrial or agricultural lines, minister in their special way. The earliest, and perhaps the best model of the labor colonies, is that situated a few miles out of Bielefeld in Westphalia, on the great highway from Cologne to Berlin. This colony, known as the Agricultural Colony of Wilhelmsdorf, occupies a great farm of about 1,000 acres. A branch colony has been established in a neighboring province, the original estate having proved too limited in extent. The Berlin Industrial Colony is also noteworthy. There are 33 labor colonies scattered over the German Empire, and they have uniformly proved of such value that they have been imitated in other con-

<sup>1</sup> See also Labor Bulletin No. 45, January, 1907, p. 52.

tinental countries. These colonies are largely self-supporting. Not only laborers, but unsuccessful tradesmen, members of the professions, even clergymen, students, and teachers, are relieved at times. The colonies are not, however, intended to be permanent homes; the length of residence is variable. As a rule, the average length of residence is from three to four months, and only in exceptional cases do the colonists remain longer. Some of the colonists make themselves indispensable and often obtain positions of permanence and of independence in connection with the colony. Though many spend but a short time at these colonies they always leave much improved in health and in other respects by their period of enforced industry in this healthful, moral atmosphere.

Labor colonies for women have also been established in eight places. A home for women (*Frauenheim*), in the village of Himmelstür near Hildesheim, established over 16 years ago, is doing a splendid work in the reformation of abandoned women of all ages. The practice is to divide the women into families of 20. Each family is placed under a superintendent or helper, and so far as possible the home life is preserved. A large number of the women are seamstresses, and for these work is found in commissions for clothing which come from prison authorities and elsewhere. Some are engaged in laundry work, others in domestic service, and still others in garden work. Over 600 women and girls have passed through the Himmelstür Home for Women, and a large part of them have been reclaimed to a moral life.

*Relief Work for the Unemployed.* The urban workman who temporarily becomes idle, and who has a home of his own, may not go a considerable distance to obtain work. In view of this difficulty certain German municipalities have recognized the necessity of providing work in times of exceptional unemployment, and have instituted "distress works" (*Notstandsarbeiten*), which are regulated by municipal statutes. As a rule, such works are carried out during the Winter months only, and consist largely of the removal of snow, scavenging, excavation, road construction, sewerage work, etc. Indoor work, consisting of wood chopping, mat making, and more rarely writing, copying, etc., is also provided in some instances. The daily wages paid to adults for outdoor work are, as a rule, not over  $2\frac{1}{2}$  marks (about 60 cents). The wages paid for juvenile and indoor work are rather low. In one city, Strassburg, young men under 18 years of age who apply for work are required to go to "continuation" or trade schools. It is recognized that this relief work is inferior in quality to that of "free" labor, and usually it is more costly, but the provision of such work is preferable to unqualified charity, since it preserves, in a measure, the self-respect of the applicant.

#### HOUSING OF THE WORKING CLASSES.

*Building of Workingmen's Homes.* The housing of the working classes has long been regarded as one of the most vital of the problems which social reformers in Germany have to face, and measures for the solution of this problem have been put in operation. These measures have been legislative as well as philanthropic. House inspection has, for a number of years, been an important part of the official machinery (particularly of small dwellings and lodging houses), and such inspection has been made obligatory in cities and towns having over 5,000 inhabitants. It has been estimated that in the larger cities and towns taken together 80 per cent of the resident workpeople live in houses inadequate either in size or arrangements, or both, to enable them to maintain a respectable, moral family life, although on the average a tenant pays fully one-quarter of his income for rent.

In 1902, Leipsic leased to a philanthropic building association a large portion of land in its environs for the erection of cheap houses, which are to contain three or four rooms, including kitchen. Many municipalities advance money on mortgages to building societies. It is also becoming a common practice for the various insurance societies to invest their funds as loans for the erection of workingmen's dwellings. In certain instances arrangements are made by building societies whereby the tenant may purchase the house which he occupies, receiving a title after he shall have paid one-third of the market value of the building and land. A noteworthy building society, bearing the title "*Verein Arbeiterheim*" (Workingmen's Home Association), established in 1884 with headquarters at Bielefeld, in Westphalia, has led in the movement, and its "experimental station" at Bielefeld consists of 120 houses which are all occupied by workingmen and artisans either as tenants or owners. These houses usually are built in pairs, and consist of four rooms on the ground floor and five on the floor above, with ample cellars and necessary outbuildings. They are generally built of brick finished with stucco, which is the style of building common to the locality, and each house has an ample piece of land, having an area of from one-fourth to one-half an acre for use as a garden and for the keeping of domestic animals. There are always more applications than houses, and preference is therefore given to men with large families, irrespective of politics or religion. The tenant may have four and one-half years in which to decide whether or not he will purchase the property. The society has not confined its work to Bielefeld, but has expended large sums in the building of cheap houses in various States of Germany. Its investment funds are raised by loans partly from the State funds, from funds which have accumulated under the Insurance Law, and from money obtained from private sources.

The Government has for many years, through its various departments, endeavored to provide small officials and workpeople in its service with suitable dwellings at low rentals, and in some instances such dwellings have been built with public funds placed at the disposal of such departments. The Empire has also set aside certain public lands for the erection of such dwellings. Prussia and certain other States have passed laws dealing particularly with the provision of funds for the building of houses for workpeople, and several laws relating to the general aspects of the problem have also been passed.

*Municipal House Bureaus.* The pressure of the housing question has led the governing authorities of several German cities and towns to undertake the function of a "house agent" in the interests particularly of the working classes and people of small means. The authorities have established bureaus where a person desiring a house may register his name and the accommodations desired, while the owner of vacant houses or tenements may register the accommodations which he can furnish. Thus, tenants and house owners may be brought together to their mutual advantage. The general house owner finds the bureau very convenient, but to the workingman it is an invaluable boon, for, engaged as he is all day, he finds it of great advantage to be able, without expense or loss of time, to go to an agency which he can implicitly trust and learn there where he may find a dwelling which in point of size, situation, and of rent is suited to his needs. Although intended primarily for workingmen, these bureaus are often consulted by persons of the middle class.

*Shelters for the Homeless.* Under a rather drastic provision of the German Imperial Law of 1871, homeless persons are liable to be sent first to a jail and then to a workhouse. For these persons, many of whom may be homeless through no fault of their own, temporary retreats known as "Shelters"

are provided, both by municipalities and by private societies. Work may or may not be required. Shelter may be provided for a single night, or for a longer period, but hardly ever for more than four weeks. During the period of shelter the person relieved may be assisted in finding work and a proper dwelling place.

In Berlin shelters are provided by the municipality and by private parties. In the municipal shelter the homeless are divided into two classes, complete families and individual transients. A school is provided in the shelter for the children. There are 244 beds for men and boys and 240 beds for women and girls, and, in the course of a year, 5,610 persons have been housed, an average of 15 a day. Private shelters in Berlin are maintained by an association (*Asyl-Verein für Obdachlose*) which has now carried on its useful work for 36 years. Little ceremony is practised in admitting its patrons, excepting that "repeating" is discouraged.

It is estimated that the various shelters, public and private throughout the Empire, house and feed a total of over 800,000 persons in a single year.

#### INDUSTRIAL COURTS OF ARBITRATION.

There are two distinct types of industrial courts of arbitration: (1) The "guild" or handicraft courts, known as the Courts of Arbitration proper (*Schiedsgerichte*); and (2) the Industrial Courts (*Gewerbegegerichte*). To the "guild" courts are brought those disputes which occur in a single trade or handicraft, and in the event of a failure to reach an agreement either party to the dispute may carry the case to the industrial court and, as a last resort, to the ordinary civil courts.

The industrial courts are far more important both in point of number and in the service which they are able to render to the cause of social peace. They owe their existence to the laws of 1890 and 1901. Many important cases formerly carried to the civil courts may now be quickly settled in these courts without litigation and the consequent expense. Reference to these courts is not compulsory; nevertheless, nearly all industrial disputes, except those arising in certain industries such as agriculture, forestry, transportation, domestic and mercantile pursuits (for which trade courts are provided), are referred to these courts. Usually the disputes are of a financial nature, although important questions of law, such as the legality of contracts, the usages of trade, etc., are frequently involved in cases where the amount of money is small. It was not the intention to have these courts concern themselves with legal technicalities, and so clearly was it the intention of the Legislature to place industrial peace before legal formality that attorneys are not allowed to plead before them. Nearly all the large German towns have their own independent courts. At the beginning of January, 1906, there existed in the whole of the German Empire not fewer than 413 such courts.

The court officers consist of a president, a deputy, and a certain number of assistants, the latter chosen by secret voting in equal numbers by employers and employed out of their midst, while the president — who may be neither an employer nor of the working people — is chosen by the local authority. The members of the court are chosen for a period not shorter than one year nor longer than six years. Regulations for membership are: The completion of the thirtieth year, prior residence or industrial occupation in the district of the court for at least two years, and non-receipt of public relief during the year preceding the election of the court. The voters must be 25 years of age and must reside or work in the district. In a town or district where there are

several large industries a separate chamber for each industry is often provided. The fees charged are purely nominal, and the local authorities may do away with the fee altogether. Membership in the court is honorary, and only traveling expenses and simple expenses for loss of time are paid.

An industrial court may also act as a board of conciliation in the event of strikes or threatened strikes, and as a consultative board when its opinions upon industrial questions are desired.

The proceedings of the court are orderly, business like, and expeditious. Its primary object is to insure justice and fair play as expeditiously as possible without setting in operation the ordinary legal machinery, and without any expense to clients. Hundreds and thousands of disputes between employers and employed are settled in such a satisfactory manner that the number of suitors who seek the assistance of these courts increases from year to year. In Berlin alone, during a single year, 12,872 cases came before the several chambers of the industrial court, and of this number 6,123, almost one-half, were settled by conciliation, while, of the remainder, 2,742 were withdrawn. A great majority of these cases related to retained wages, compensation, dismissal from service without notice, imposition of fines, damage to goods and tools, etc. In 18 per cent of the total cases less than one week was required in disposing of them, in 51 per cent of the cases less than a fortnight, and in only five per cent did the time required exceed one month. During the year the court acted 37 times, also, as a board of conciliation, and in about one-half of these cases the results were satisfactory.

#### WORKMEN'S ADVISORY INSTITUTIONS.

*Workmen's Secretariates.* Within recent years there have been established rather generally throughout the German Empire Workmen's Secretariates (*Arbeitersekretariate*) similar in some respects to the earlier Swiss institutions, bearing the same name, but in certain vital characteristics quite dissimilar. For example, the Swiss Workingmen's Secretariate, which serves for the entire Confederation, is maintained by the State, while the German Secretariates, which are entirely urban, have been created and are entirely supported by the allied trade unions. The Swiss institution deals with the broader industrial issues, while the 70 or more Socialist Secretariates, already established in Germany, seek to protect and to assert the rights of the working classes, not in the mass, but as single individuals in every department of industrial and civil life.

The German Secretariate may best be described as consisting of a chamber of labor, intelligence bureau, and poor man's lawyer combined. Advice is given without charge upon all the laws which specially concern the working classes. The Secretariates also prepare opinions on various legal points, draw up memorials and formulate complaints at the instance of the trade unions or their federations, make arrangements for the elections of Boards of Conciliation and of the Industrial Courts, mediate in wage disputes, and represent workpeople before industrial and legal tribunals. Certain of the Secretariates act, also, as direct organizers of trade unions, and several have rendered valuable service in investigating various labor and social questions.

The Workmen's Secretariates proper are maintained by the combined trade societies of a town or district, the nearest approach to a Secretariate for a special industry being those of the Coal Miners' Union, although in these cases the colliery districts are as a rule given up to a single industry.

The secretary of each institution is elected by the trade unionists whom

he represents. These secretaries are usually men who have had considerable experience as workmen and who have manifested particular knowledge of industrial conditions and of the labor laws. In many instances they are more familiar with the statutes affecting labor than the skilled lawyers with whom they are from time to time brought into contact. The salary received by the secretary and the other expenses connected with his office are by no means excessive; thus, such returns as are available show that only six of the offices had a total revenue of over \$2,400. The funds, as a rule, are raised by a weekly or monthly levy of about one mark (23.8 cents) a year from each member of the trade unions deriving benefits. In some cases contributions are received from political and other societies and from the profits of the party newspapers. The returns of 32 Workmen's Secretariates for a recent year showed that 195,679 visitors were given advice on 197,927 subjects—an average of 6,185 inquiries to every office or 20 for each weekday of the year. The benefits are not altogether confined to workpeople, and advice is freely given on other than purely legal or industrial matters.

In 1903, a Central Workman's Secretariate, representing the entire body of trade unions in the Empire, was established in Berlin. It is maintained and controlled by the general committee of the trade unions, and its services are at the disposal not only of the affiliated secretariates, but of all organized workers without restriction.

Workmen's Secretariates have also been established under Roman Catholic and Protestant auspices, largely for benefit of the members of the respective religious organizations.

*Municipal Information Bureau.* Under the German Imperial Law a franchise, bearing the name "Right of the Poor" (*Armenrecht*), secures for persons who are unable to engage paid advocacy, upon making declaration of straitened circumstances, free legal advice and representation before the civil courts. Certain of the cities and towns have gone even further in this respect by establishing Labor Bureaus (*Arbeitsämter*) and Legal Agencies (*Rechtsstellen*), the common purpose of which is the furnishing of legal advice to any inquirer and on practically any subject. They differ from the Workmen's Secretariates in that they cover a wider range of subjects and do not exist primarily for trade union purposes. These public advice agencies do not supersede the work of the courts but seek to diminish the amount of litigation, especially in those cases where disputes might better be settled out of court. A single municipal information bureau, that at Mülhausen, in Alsace, gave advice to 32,090 inquirers during the year 1904-05.

#### INDUSTRIAL INSURANCE.

Under a comprehensive insurance system established by law the wage-earner in Germany is adequately insured against (1) sickness, (2) accident, and (3) old age and invalidity. The extent to which people in Germany are insured under this system may be indicated by the fact that in an estimated population of about 59,000,000 in 1903, the number of persons insured against sickness was 10,914,433; against accident, 17,965,000; and against old age and invalidity, 13,567,000. The entire receipts of the sickness insurance fund in 1903 were, in round numbers, \$50,100,000; of the accident fund, \$35,600,000; and of the invalidity and old-age fund, \$44,300,000; a total of \$130,000,000. During the same year \$48,700,000 was paid in sick relief, \$33,100,000 in compensation for accidents, and \$24,500,000 in old-age and invalidity pensions, a total of \$106,300,000. The accumulated funds at the end of the year were about \$350,600,000.

*Insurance against Sickness.* Nearly all workpeople who are regularly employed at wages ordinarily not exceeding 2,000 marks (\$476) a year are required to be insured. Persons in independent positions, however restricted their resources, also soldiers, sailors, and persons engaged in certain other specified occupations are exempt.

There are six groups of insurance societies or agencies providing insurance against sickness: The local sick funds established by parishes for the tradesmen within their limits; the industrial or factory sick funds conducted in connection with the large undertakings; the building trades sick funds; the guild sick funds; and the miners' (*Knappschaft*) sick funds; while persons insured in none of these funds, yet still liable, are gathered into "omnibus" funds established for the purpose by the parishes.

The general basis on which these funds are conducted is practically the same, special conditions being added to provide for the various kinds of employment. Usually the longest period of time for which sick pay is granted is 26 weeks, after which, should incapacity continue, the liability is transferred to the Accident Insurance Fund, although medical attendance may continue for a year.

In return for insurance privileges, workingmen are required to pay weekly premiums, the rate being very low in all cases. Payments to the fund are also made by employers, amounting to about one-half the total payments by their employees. The premiums paid by the workpeople do not, as a rule, exceed three per cent of the usual rate of wages when the relief granted is minimum, and four per cent when a higher scale of relief is given. While sick benefits are being received no workingman is required to pay the premium. The workpeople have a large share in the management of the sick funds, except in the case of communal insurance, where the local administrative body takes entire charge and entire responsibility.

*Insurance against Accident.* The laws on the subject provide for accident insurance for employees in factories, workshops, mines, transportation, agriculture, forestry, building works, the State and public services (railway, post, telegraph, etc.), and in certain other kinds of employment. Not only wage-earners, but officials and overseers with salaries not exceeding 3,000 marks (\$714) a year are liable to insurance, and even certain independent employers may be included.

Three insurance organizations are provided: (1) by employers, as members of trade associations; (2) by the Empire or State in case of public works; and (3) by the State in case of prisoners. The trade associations are self-governed, but the Imperial Insurance Board and the State Insurance Boards exercise control over them, yet with a view only to the full observance of the law. Compensation is paid even though there be negligence on the workmen's part, though never in case of intentional negligence. Compensation begins at the expiration of the thirteenth week after the occurrence of the accident, the sick fund or the individual employer being liable in the interval. After that time the trade association provides all reasonable medical attendance and medicine, and also pays a weekly compensation so long as incapacity lasts. The amount of pension paid is in proportion to the earning power of the pensioner. A full pension amounts to two-thirds of the yearly wages, and a smaller percentage may be given where the earning capacity is only partially destroyed. In case of fatal accidents, provisions are made for payments to the deceased person's beneficiaries. In general, where accident insurance money is paid there is no further claim upon the employer individually.

*Insurance against Old Age and Invalidity.* In general, workpeople who have completed their sixteenth year and who are receiving wages or salaries not exceeding 2,000 marks (\$476) a year are liable to this form of insurance. Although generally compulsory, certain persons may be exempted on their own request, and voluntary insurance is open to certain classes of people not specified under the law. The work of insurance is carried on by insurance societies in co-operation with State administration, subject to control of the insurance boards of the Empire or States. These societies (*Anstalten*) are formed for single or combined communal unions, for portions of a State, for a whole State, or for several States together. Employers and employees are represented in the managing bodies.

The receipt of an invalidity or old-age annuity depends on three conditions: The payment of the prescribed statutory contributions; the observance of the prescribed "waiting time" of 200 weeks in the case of invalidity and 1,200 weeks in the case of old age; and the occurrence either of inability to earn a livelihood or the prescribed age of qualification, viz., the completed seventieth year. There are three contributions,—equal payments by the employers, by their insured workpeople, and a subsidy by the Empire of 50 marks (\$11.90) towards every pension granted.

The premiums are levied in the form of stamps, which are issued by the various insurance institutions for the several wage classes and are sold at the post-offices and special agencies. These stamps are affixed to receipt cards, which the insured are bound under penalty to use. The cards have places for 52 or more stamps, and must be exchanged for new ones when filled up. The employer deducts a workman's premiums from his wages, but it is permissible for the premiums due for a whole body of employees to be paid in one sum, as in the case of members of trade societies, municipal workpeople, etc. The pensions received vary according to the wage class to which the pensioner belonged. When a person, who has contributed to the fund, does not live to enjoy its benefits, a definite portion of the amount of premiums already paid in may be paid to his or her beneficiaries.

There are other institutions in Germany for the benefit of the general populace severally described by Mr. Dawson in his book, which is a valuable epitome of German Social Institutions. The institutions which we omit relate to Poor Relief, Municipal Pawnshops, Public Hospitals, Convalescent Homes, Healing Agencies (including Anti-consumption Crusade, Berlin Convalescent Home, and the Doctor in the School). Still other chapters are devoted to the treatment of Industrial Malingering (work shirking), the Berlin Workhouse, and the Dresden Municipal Workhouse.

These institutions complete the catalogue of Germany's practical experiments in the science of social government. Of these experiments, Mr. Dawson says "some are remarkable for their originality, for Germany, in this domain of legislation, shows an initiative and boldness which, whether the results always give satisfaction or not, compel admiration and respect."

## BUSINESS ADVERTISING.

As is well known to-day, the magazines, in addition to the literary features which they present, devote a large number of their pages to advertisements. These advertisements, as a rule, are inserted by business houses located in the different States with a view of attracting trade.

In order to determine the proportional representation of Massachusetts manufacturers and dealers in this line of advertising a tabulation has been made of the advertisements contained in 21 of the leading magazines of the country and three prominent weeklies. In making the tabulation, no account was made of the advertisements relating to the publications of the house that printed the magazine; advertisements of a professional nature and of all institutions of learning were also omitted from the tabulation, so that the figures presented in the following table may be considered as indicative of appeals of business houses for the articles manufactured or sold by them.

STATES.	Number of Advertisements	Percentages	STATES.	Number of Advertisements	Percentages
New York, . . . .	1,144	33.73	Tennessee, . . . .	8	0.23
Illinois, . . . .	408	12.03	New Hampshire, . . . .	6	0.18
Massachusetts, . . . .	398	11.73	Colorado, . . . .	5	0.15
Ohio, . . . .	288	8.49	District of Columbia, . . . .	5	0.15
Michigan, . . . .	286	8.43	Nebraska, . . . .	5	0.15
Pennsylvania, . . . .	265	7.81	Rhode Island, . . . .	5	0.15
Indiana, . . . .	117	3.45	Georgia, . . . .	4	0.12
Connecticut, . . . .	103	3.04	Kentucky, . . . .	4	0.12
New Jersey, . . . .	101	2.98	Washington, . . . .	4	0.12
Wisconsin, . . . .	66	1.94	North Carolina, . . . .	2	0.06
Missouri, . . . .	46	1.36	Kansas, . . . .	1	0.03
Minnesota, . . . .	36	1.06	Louisiana, . . . .	1	0.03
Virginia, . . . .	20	0.59	Montana, . . . .	1	0.03
California, . . . .	15	0.44	New Mexico, . . . .	1	0.03
Vermont, . . . .	13	0.38	Oregon, . . . .	1	0.03
Iowa, . . . .	13	0.38	Utah, . . . .	1	0.03
Maine, . . . .	11	0.32	TOTAL, . . . .	3,392	100.00
Maryland, . . . .	8	0.23			

The whole number of advertisements contained in the 24 magazines and weeklies previously referred to, subject to the eliminations mentioned, was 3,392. Of these, 1,144 were inserted by New York houses, that is, business houses located in the State of New York, and they represent 33.73 per cent of the entire number. The State of Illinois ranked second, with 408 advertisements, or 12.03 per cent, while Massachusetts ranked third, with 398 advertisements, or 11.73 per cent.

Business houses in the nine States of New York, Illinois, Massachusetts, Ohio, Michigan, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Connecticut, and New Jersey inserted 3,110 of the total 3,392 advertisements, or 91.69 per cent.

## POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.<sup>1</sup>

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The postal savings bank system was inaugurated with the establishment of postal savings banks in England in 1861. Four years later similar banks were established in Belgium, and, in 1875, in Italy. During the years from 1881 to 1886 such banks were established in Holland, France, Austria, Sweden, and Hungary; in Japan, they have been in operation since 1875, and in Hawaii since 1886; and a system was established in 1906 in the Philippine Islands.

The banks are designed primarily to serve the needs of persons of small means, and in France and Belgium, where records are made of the occupations of depositors, a large proportion are found to belong to the working classes. Statistics of postal savings banks, however, represent, in most countries, only a small part of workingmen's savings because of the extent to which the savings of wage-earners are attracted by numerous other classes of provident institutions.

The following statements relative to postal savings banks in the various countries are arranged chronologically, according to the dates of establishment of the banks.

### GREAT BRITAIN.

The Post-office Savings Bank of the United Kingdom was established in 1861, and for 30 years was operated with very few changes in its regulations. At the beginning, the minimum limit for deposits was fixed at one shilling (\$0.243) and the maximum limit for deposits for individuals at £30 (\$145.98) in one year and £150 (\$729.90) in all, or £200 (\$973.20) including accumulated interest; no limit was placed upon the deposits of friendly societies, and the maximum for provident and charitable societies was made £100 (\$486.60) a year and £300 (\$1,459.80) in

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<sup>1</sup>The information relative to postal savings banks was obtained by correspondence and from the following reports:

Second Series of Memoranda on British and Foreign Trade and Industry. Board of Trade, London, 1904.

Report of Post Office Savings Banks in the United Kingdom for the year ended December 31, 1904.

Transactions of the Post Office Savings Bank of Canada for the year ended June 30, 1906.

United States Senate Documents, Vol. 3, 55th Congress, Second Session. Washington, D. C., 1898.

American Monthly Review of Reviews, New York, October, 1906.

Rapport sur les opérations de la caisse nationale d'épargne, 1905. Ministère des Travaux Publics, des Postes et des Télégraphes, Paris, 1906.

Compte rendu des opérations et de la situation de la caisse générale d'épargne et de retraite, 1905. Ministère des Finances et des Travaux Publics, Brussels.

La Belgique, 1830-1905. Ministère de l'Industrie et du Travail, Brussels, 1905.

Extrait du rapport au roi sur la situation et la gestion de la caisse d'épargne postale de Suède, 1904. Stockholm, 1906.

Verslag aan de Koningin betrekkelijk den dienst der rijkspostspaarbank in Nederland, 1905.

Mémoire sur la caisse d'épargne postale des Pays-Bas. By Armand Sassen, Director-general of the Bank.

Zweiundzwanziger Rechenschafts-Bericht des k.k. Postsparkassen-Amtes, 1905. Vienna, 1906.

Relazione sul servizio delle casse di risparmio postali, 1902 and 1903. Rome, 1905, 1906.

all. In 1891, the maximum limit for deposits of individuals was raised from £150 to £200, and a provision adopted that no interest should be paid on amounts deposited to any account in excess of £200. In 1893, the limit of deposits to be allowed in one year was raised from £30 to £50 (\$243.30).

Another important change made in 1891 allowed depositors to withdraw small sums on demand. Under the original system no deposits could be withdrawn until notice had been given; now sums not exceeding one pound may be withdrawn on demand at a post-office, and larger sums may be obtained by telegraph at the expense of the depositor.

The rate of interest paid on deposits has remained 2½ per cent from the beginning. The regulations provide for the investment of savings in consols and guaranteed stocks and annuities.

During the year ending December 31, 1904, post-office savings banks received deposits amounting to £40,612,966 14s (\$197,622,695.96) and paid out in withdrawals £41,904,393 4s 10d (\$203,906,777.51). Interest for the year on deposits amounted to £3,495,633 1s 5d (\$17,009,750.52) and the balance due all depositors at the close of the year was £148,339,353 12s 10d (\$721,819,294.82).

The cost of maintaining post-office savings banks in the United Kingdom from September 16, 1861, the date of establishment, to December 31, 1904, was £11,067,262 14s 5¾d (\$53,853,300.41).

Under the auspices of the Post-office Savings Bank, school banks are maintained in the public schools to collect the small savings of school children. A similar work is done as an auxiliary service by the trustee savings banks, which are private institutions under State control, and hold an important place among savings banks in the United Kingdom. The system has been in operation for about a quarter of a century and has been very successful. The trustee savings banks also maintain penny savings banks for the benefit of the general public.

#### AUSTRALIA.

Post-office savings banks are maintained in some States of Australia under varying conditions for the different States. In all cases the smallest deposit accepted is one shilling, and the uniform rate of interest allowed is three per cent.

In New South Wales no maximum limit is placed upon the deposits of either individuals or friendly societies and charitable institutions, but sums in excess of £300 (\$1,459.80) deposited by individuals do not bear interest. On June 30, 1906, the sum to the credit of depositors in the public school savings banks, exclusive of interest, was \$47,577.

In Western Australia the maximum limit for deposits is £600 (\$2,919.60) for each account. Not more than £150 (\$729.90) may be deposited in one year, and the excess of the total over £300 does not bear interest.

In Tasmania, no maximum limit is placed upon deposits, but interest is not paid on the excess of any deposit over £150.

#### NEW ZEALAND.

In New Zealand the minimum deposit received in the Post-office Savings Bank is one shilling. Provision is made for the saving of smaller sums by the use of postage stamps, and cards bearing these stamps to the amount of one shilling are accepted at the banks as cash. No maximum limit is placed upon deposits. Interest at the rate of three per cent is paid on deposits up to £200 (\$973.20) and at 2½ per cent on sums from £200 to £500 (\$973.20 to \$2,433); on deposits in excess of £500 no interest is paid.

## BELGIUM.

The General Savings and Superannuation Bank (*Caisse générale d'épargne et de retraite*) holds almost all savings deposits in Belgium. It is guaranteed by the State, being under the supervision of the Ministry of Finance and Public Works, and is operated in four sections, viz., the General Superannuation Fund (*Caisse générale de retraite*) established by the law of May 8, 1850; the Savings Bank (*Caisse d'épargne*) established by the law of March 16, 1865; the Life Insurance Fund (*Caisse d'assurances*) established in 1891; and the Accident Insurance Fund (*Caisse de rentes-accidents*) established in 1905.

No maximum limit is placed upon amounts to be deposited in the Savings Bank, the minimum limit being one franc (\$0.193). In 1881, provision was made for the use of postage stamps for saving sums of less than one franc. The rate of interest allowed on deposits is fixed by the general council of the bank with the approval of the Minister of Finance and Public Works. In the beginning, the rate of interest was made three per cent for all savings deposited; in 1881, the general council reduced the rate to two per cent on holdings in excess of 12,000 francs (\$2,316); in 1886, the maximum to draw three per cent interest was reduced to 5,000 francs (\$965), and, in 1891, to 3,000 francs (\$579), the amount in excess of this sum to draw only two per cent; in 1894, a still more radical change was adopted, fixing the rate of interest at two per cent on the entire sum of any account exceeding 3,000 francs; and, in 1902, this amount was further reduced to 2,000 francs (\$386).

In 1869, post-offices were made branch offices of the Savings Bank. In 1875, a special service of pass-books for Government bonds (*carnets de rentes belges*) was added, through which regular depositors are enabled to invest in Government bonds under very advantageous conditions.

Sums exceeding 100 francs (\$19.30) can not be withdrawn from the Savings Bank without notice, the length of notice varying from two weeks to six months. The National Bank of Belgium acts as cashier of the Savings Bank, making all provisional investments; definite investments are made through the Government Deposit and Consignment Office (*Caisse des dépôts et consignations*) as are also all realizations. The Savings Bank accepts deposits of communes, public departments, and various societies, as well as of individuals. The law of April 15, 1884, authorizes loans to agriculturists; the law of June 21, 1894, authorizes loans to agricultural co-operative societies and provides for receiving deposits from them; and a royal decree of September 21, 1904, makes provision for loans to working-men's joint-stock and co-operative building societies.

By an agreement entered into with France, the Postal Savings Bank of that country maintains a service of exchange with the Belgian institution, accounts being transferred and payments of capital or interest made for the benefit of citizens of either country residing in the other. A similar service of exchange is in operation with the Postal Savings Bank of the Netherlands. During 1905 the Belgian Savings Bank paid 181,559.36 francs (\$35,040.96) on account of deposits made in France and 63,175.18 francs (\$12,192.81) on account of deposits made in Holland, while 784,066.70 francs (\$151,324.87) were paid by the French Postal Savings Bank and 64,126.72 francs (\$12,376.46) by the Postal Savings Bank of the Netherlands on account of deposits made in Belgium.

On December 31, 1905, there were 1,063 offices in operation in the service of the Savings Bank, 68 being offices of the central administration and its branches and agencies of the National Bank, and the remaining 998 post-offices. Of the 2,311,845 accounts existing, on December 31, 1905, in the Savings Bank, 425,988

were held in the offices of the central administration and its branches or the agencies of the National Bank and 1,885,857 in post-offices, the accounts of individuals numbering 2,304,606 and those of communes and public enterprises numbering 7,239. During the year, 3,915,078 deposits amounting to 345,804,954 francs (\$66,740,-356.12) were made, and there were 1,235,456 withdrawals amounting to 345,437,561 francs (\$66,669,449.27). At the close of the year the total holdings of individuals amounted to 772,085,013 francs (\$149,012,407.51) and the holdings of communes and public establishments to 13,619,563 francs (\$2,628,575.66), making the aggregate deposits 785,704,576 francs (\$151,640,983.17), an average of 339.86 francs (\$65.59) for each account. Interest on all accounts for the year aggregated 22,-222,823.16 francs (\$4,289,004.87).

In 1889, the accounts maintained by the Savings Bank represented, approximately, one for each five inhabitants; in 1900, there was one account for each four inhabitants; and the proportion has since risen to nearly one account for each three inhabitants. The classification of the depositors by occupations shows that fully 70 per cent of the new accounts for the year 1905 were opened by persons of the working class. About 48 per cent of the new accounts of individuals, for the year, were opened by women and girls.

The cost of administration of the Savings Bank, in 1905, was 2,297,063.49 francs (\$443,333.25).

#### CANADA.

The Post-office Savings Bank of Canada was established in 1868. The minimum deposit accepted is \$1, and the maximum single deposit \$1,000; the maximum limit of deposits for one account is fixed at \$1,000 in one year and \$3,000 altogether, exclusive of interest; no interest is allowed on any sum over and above \$3,000 in any ordinary deposit account. Withdrawals must be made in even dollars, except when a depositor withdraws the entire amount of principal and interest due him. The rate of interest paid on deposits was four per cent until October, 1889, when it was reduced to three and one-half per cent; in July, 1897, it was still further reduced to three per cent, the rate paid at present. Money received from depositors goes into the general revenue of the Dominion, and the balance due depositors forms a part of the national debt.

On June 30, 1906, the close of the fiscal year, 1,011 post-offices were acting as branches of the Canadian Post-office Savings Bank; the accounts maintained numbered 164,542, representing aggregate holdings of \$45,736,488.51; new accounts to the number of 37,681 had been opened and 39,536 accounts had been closed during the year. Interest allowed depositors for the year aggregated \$1,328,205.78. The deposits made numbered 233,803 representing \$10,805,458, and withdrawals numbered 106,923 representing \$12,324,529.26. In December, 1905, deposits in the Dominion Government Savings Bank at Toronto, on 879 accounts to the amount of \$559,593.31, were transferred to the Post-office Savings Bank, making a total of \$7,034,469.88 so transferred on 20,398 accounts since 1887. During the whole period from the opening of the banks in April, 1868, to June 30, 1906, there were 956,608 new accounts opened, and the sum of \$240,228,963 was received in deposits, while 812,464 accounts were closed and a total of \$224,821,251.62 was paid back to depositors.

#### ITALY.

The Postal Savings Bank of Italy was established by the law of May 27, 1875. At the close of the first year in operation (1876) there were 1,989 post-offices acting as savings banks and carrying 57,354 accounts, which represented savings to the amount of 2,443,404 lire (\$471,576.97). In 1905, the number of banks or offices in operation under the law was 5,991 with 5,527,332 depositors holding deposits

to the amount of 1,068,521,242.98 lire (\$206,224,599.90), an average of 923 accounts for each office and an average credit of 193.32 lire (\$37.31) for each account. The number of deposits made during the year reached 3,514,373, aggregating 545,698,024.27 lire (\$105,319,718.68), and the withdrawals numbered 2,874,417 and aggregated 486,938,780.08 lire (\$93,979,184.56). The average deposits for the year for each bank amounted to 91,086.30 lire (\$17,579.66) and the average withdrawals to 81,278.38 lire (\$15,686.73), while, for each depositor, the average deposits for the year amounted to 98.72 lire (\$19.05) and the average withdrawals amounted to 88.09 lire (\$17).

From 1876 to 1897 the rate of interest paid by postal savings banks varied from three per cent to three and one-half and three and one-fourth per cent; in 1898, it was reduced to 2.88 per cent and on July 1, 1901, to 2.76 per cent; during 1905, the rate was 2.64 per cent and the interest paid for the year aggregated 26,288,375.82 lire (\$5,073,656.53). The cost of administration of the banks for the 28 years from 1876 through 1903 amounted to 28,891,669.33 lire (\$5,576,092.18), making the average annual cost of administration 1,031,845.33 lire (\$199,146.15). The smallest deposit accepted is one lira (\$0.193), and not more than 1,000 lire (\$193) are accepted from one depositor in a year. The funds in excess of the daily needs of the cash service of the banks are deposited with the Treasury Department (*Cassa dei Depositi e dei Prestiti*) to be invested in municipal loans. Various changes have been made in the system from time to time. In 1883, a provision was adopted for receiving savings of less than one lira by means of postage stamps; in 1884, collectorships were established, the collectors serving as intermediaries between the public and the post-offices; in 1886, branches of the postal savings bank were established on board naval vessels; in 1889, provision was made for receiving deposits from Italian citizens living in foreign countries. These are among the more important additions to the service. In 1897, and again in 1902, the service was reorganized to provide more satisfactory administration. On April 15, 1904, a convention was adopted by Italy and France by which a system of transfers between the postal savings banks of the two countries has been established for the benefit of citizens of either country residing in the other.

#### JAPAN.

Postal savings banks were established in Japan in 1875. A law promulgated August 12, 1890, and put into effect January 1, 1891, provided that the postal savings bank business be supervised by the Minister of Communications. The smallest deposit accepted is 10 sen (\$0.10), and no one person may deposit more than 50 yen<sup>1</sup> (\$50) in one day or hold more than 500 yen in all. Sums deposited in excess of this maximum are invested, in behalf of the depositor, in Government bonds. In 1875, there were 1,843 depositors in the postal savings banks, with aggregate deposits of \$15,224; at the close of 1896 there were 1,257,696 depositors, with holdings of \$28,078,291. Deposits made during 1896 amounted to \$16,985,713 and withdrawals were made to the amount of \$17,759,248. The interest due depositors for the year 1896 amounted to \$1,103,610.

#### NETHERLANDS.

Postal savings banks were introduced in the Netherlands in 1881. Previous to this time only individual initiative had been concerned in the very limited operation of savings in the Netherlands; banks were few in proportion to the territory and

<sup>1</sup> In the report on which this statement is based the yen is treated as equal to an American dollar; the value of a yen as given by the Director of the United States Mint (January, 1907) is 49.8 cents.

population of the country, and were in some instances kept open for deposits only one hour a week. In 1875, an attempt was made to improve conditions by establishing post-offices as intermediaries between depositors in various localities and the savings banks, but because of either faulty principles or weak administration the experiment failed. On May 4, 1879, a bill was introduced in the Chamber of Deputies, proposing to establish a postal savings bank. This bill became a law May 25, 1880, taking effect April 1, 1881, on which date all the principal post-offices (200 in number) as well as 151 auxiliary offices were opened for this service. For banking service the offices are open to the public daily during the hours for postal service, but not earlier than 8.30 A.M. or later than 8.30 P.M.; on Sundays and holidays the banking service is restricted to the morning. Rural postmen receive deposits from and make payments to persons living at such distances from regular offices as to warrant such service.

The Postal Savings Bank is directly supervised by the Ministry of Public Works, Commerce, and Industry. The Bank of the Netherlands acts as cashier for it, and the funds of the bank may be invested in bonds and public securities designated by law. Interest on deposits is paid at the rate of 2.64 per cent, yearly, a rate, which, being divisible by 24, facilitates the calculation of semi-monthly interest. The State guarantees all deposits and the payment of both principal and interest. The smallest deposit accepted by the bank is one-quarter guilder (\$0.10), but, in order to encourage the saving of very small amounts, post-offices and postage stamp shops distribute, gratuitously, books arranged to hold stamps to the value of one guilder. The books hold 20 stamps, each stamp being worth five cents in Dutch money or two cents in American money. For the use of primary schools, books are distributed to hold one guilder in stamps of the value of one cent each in Dutch money or four mills each in American money. When filled, the postage stamp books are accepted at the banks. Ordinary withdrawals are limited to 25 guilders (\$10) a week for each account, but in exceptional cases 100 guilders (\$40) may be withdrawn at one time. Provision is made for withdrawals by telegraph order, at the expense of the depositor. The largest amount upon which interest is paid is 1,200 guilders (\$480) for individuals and 2,400 guilders (\$960) for institutions, societies, and mutual benefit funds; these limits were established by the law of July 20, 1895, the original law having fixed the limit at 800 guilders (\$320) for all accounts.

At the close of 1905, there were 1,408 local offices of the Postal Savings Bank in operation, and the depositors numbered one for each 4.7 inhabitants; during 1905, the deposits received numbered 1,641,783 and aggregated 61,446,453.97 guilders (\$24,578,581.59); withdrawals numbered 777,742 and aggregated 55,134,656.35 guilders (\$22,053,802.54); and the aggregate holdings of the 1,184,316 depositors at the close of the year amounted to 129,929,573.64 guilders (\$51,971,829.46), making an average of 109.7 guilders (\$43.88) for each account. The amount of deposits for the year averaged 51.88 guilders (\$20.75) and the amount of withdrawals 46.55 guilders (\$18.62) for each account.

In the operation of the international service between the Postal Savings Bank of the Netherlands and that of Belgium, 55 transfers, representing 11,831.03 guilders (\$4,732.41), were made from the Belgian to the Dutch banks during 1905, and 81 transfers, representing 12,446.29 guilders (\$4,978.52), from Dutch to Belgian banks; 30,372.44 guilders (\$12,148.98) were paid in Holland on account of savings deposited in Belgium, and 30,293.75 guilders (\$12,117.50) in Belgium on account of deposits made in Holland.

#### FRANCE.

Postal savings banks were established in France, in January, 1882, by virtue of the law of April 9, 1881. Various modifications in the law have been made. On

June 10, 1882, a law was passed permitting the National Savings Bank (*Caisse nationale d'épargne*) to receive from certain classes of depositors sums of less than one franc. By the law of August 3, 1882, special savings stamps were authorized, to be used in recording deposits. By the law of February 26, 1887, 50 million francs (\$9,650,000) was made the maximum reserve to be held for the National Savings Bank by the Government Deposit and Consignment Office (*Caisse des dépôts et consignations*). The law of December 26, 1890, established the rate of interest to be allowed on the reserve fund. The law of July 20, 1895, regulated the use of funds and the investments of deposits in excess of the maximum permitted; fixed the maximum limit of accounts at 1,500 francs (\$289.50) for individuals and 15,000 francs (\$2,895) for mutual aid societies; and limited to 1,500 francs the amount of deposits allowed on one account in any calendar year.

The bank is operated through the central office at Paris, 44 branch offices, and 7,884 post-offices; there are special branches maintained in the army and navy, and eight offices in foreign countries. Very small savings are collected by means of stamps ranging from five to 10 centimes (one to two cents) in value and pasted on a "savings bulletin" which is accepted as the equivalent of a cash deposit when the stamps reach the value of one franc. In 1905, 73,843 "savings bulletins" were deposited.

At the close of the year 1905 the National Savings Bank carried 4,577,390 accounts representing 1,278,257,647.31 francs (\$246,703,725.93) or 279.25 francs (\$53.89) for each account; 509,599 new accounts had been opened during the year. The deposits made during the year numbered 3,849,054, with an aggregate value of 494,861,689.83 francs (\$95,508,306.14), an average of 108.11 francs (\$20.87) for each account; and withdrawals numbered 1,988,694 with an aggregate value of 425,714,641.74 francs (\$82,162,925.86) or 93 francs (\$17.95) for each account. Of the withdrawals, 1,711,039 were partial and 277,655 total. In addition to these withdrawals, the sum of 8,437,060.69 francs (\$1,628,352.71) was applied to the purchase of bonds for depositors in 8,534 cases, raising the amount of deposits withdrawn to a total of 434,151,702.43 francs (\$83,791,278.57). Interest on deposits is paid at the rate of two and one-half per cent, amounting, in 1905, to 30,198,999.78 francs (\$5,828,406.96) for the year. The cost of administration for the year was 4,790,587.92 francs (\$924,583.47), being an average of 0.82 francs (\$0.16) for each operation. Practically three-fourths of the new accounts opened during the year were opened by persons belonging to the working classes; and about 45 per cent of all new accounts were opened by women; minors opened 190,364 accounts during 1905.

Since 1882 an international service has been in operation between the postal savings banks of Belgium and France for the benefit of citizens of one country residing in the other. On April 15, 1904, an arrangement was entered into with Italy to organize a similar service between the postal savings banks of Italy and France, a service which began operations June 1, 1906.

#### AUSTRIA.

The Postal Savings Bank (*K. K. Postsparkassen-Amt*) of Austria was established by the law of May 28, 1882. In the beginning the maximum sum to be held by each depositor was fixed at 300 florins (\$121.80). A little later this was changed to 1,000 florins (\$406), all sums deposited in excess of this amount being invested in Austrian Government securities in behalf of the depositor. The larger maximum limit made the system available to small capitalists and business men. Within five years the system had become very generally used throughout the empire and, in 1887, to increase its effectiveness, a check and clearing department was opened with no

limit placed upon the holdings of any depositor, thus establishing a banking system operated through the post-office department and supervised by the Government. The only restriction placed upon withdrawals of funds from this department is that no single check may be drawn for more than 20,000 crowns (\$4,060). Among the services performed by it, the check and clearing department pays and collects bills for depositors, buys and holds Government securities for them, and pays taxes due from them to the Government.

Every post-office in Austria is a station of the Postal Savings Bank, and individuals, companies, societies, congregations, and trustees may become depositors upon proper application to the Postal Savings Bank at Vienna. Rural letter carriers receive deposits not exceeding 600 crowns (\$121.80), a collection tax of five kreutzers (two cents) being charged upon sums in excess of 20 crowns (\$4.06), while all smaller sums are collected without charge. The smallest deposit received is one crown (\$0.203), but for the saving of smaller sums cards are furnished upon which postage stamps of any denomination may be pasted, such stamp cards being accepted as deposits when the value of the stamps reaches one crown.

At the close of the year 1905 there were 6,407 branch offices in operation under the Postal Savings Bank; depositors numbered 1,900,194, with aggregate holdings of 209,541,194.32 crowns (\$42,536,862.45). The deposits during the year numbered 3,224,609 and amounted to 135,716,971.45 crowns (\$27,550,545.20), an average of 42.09 crowns (\$8.54) for each deposit and 71.42 crowns (\$14.50) for each depositor. Withdrawals for the year numbered 1,588,702 and aggregated 122,912,884.39 crowns (\$24,951,315.53), an average of 77.37 crowns (\$15.71) for each withdrawal and 64.68 crowns (\$13.13) for each depositor. Interest is paid at the rate of three per cent a year on savings in excess of two crowns (\$0.406) and, in 1905, amounted to 5,549,365.63 crowns (\$1,126,521.22). During the year, 13,619 investments in Government securities to the value of 14,201,904.62 crowns (\$2,882,-986.64) were made in behalf of depositors. The expense to the Government, in 1905, for maintenance of the savings department was 959,432 crowns (\$194,764.70).

#### SWEDEN.

Post-office savings banks have been in operation in Sweden since 1884. At the close of the first year, 1,575 post-offices, or 88 per cent of all post-offices in the kingdom, acted as branches of the Postal Savings Bank. At the close of 1904, there were 2,935 post-offices (99.26 per cent of all offices) operating as savings banks; they carried 570,203 accounts, representing 108 accounts for each 1,000 inhabitants, with aggregate holdings of 55,410,004.32 crowns (\$14,794,471.15), an average of 97.18 crowns (\$25.95) for each account and 10,532.60 crowns (\$2,812.20) for each 1,000 of the population. During the year, 560,345 deposits were made aggregating 12,135,681 crowns (\$3,240,226.83) and 143,387 withdrawals aggregating 13,078,751 crowns (\$3,492,026.52), the withdrawals being 107.77 per cent of the amount of deposits for the year and averaging 22.94 crowns (\$6.12) for each account, while the deposits for the year averaged 21.28 crowns (\$5.68) for each account. During 1905, 76 branch offices of the Postal Savings Bank were opened and 11 offices discontinued, making the net gain for the year 65 offices.

Post-offices and certain shops sell stamps, of the value of 10 öre (\$0.027) each, to depositors, by the use of which small sums may be saved; the stamps are pasted on cards furnished by the offices, and, when their value aggregates one crown (\$0.267), they are accepted as deposits.

For the year 1904, the administration of postal savings banks cost the Government 240,247.82 crowns (\$64,146.17). Savings held by the post-office banks may be invested, to the credit of the depositors, in Government bonds or mortgages or

in loans to cities or towns. In addition to its other functions, the Postal Savings Bank has, since 1903, when the National Insurance Office was established, received the funds of the latter office as deposits, and all post-offices acting as branches of the Postal Savings Bank are required to make and receive payments in behalf of the National Insurance Office.

#### HUNGARY.

Postal savings banks were established in Hungary, February 1, 1886. The minimum deposit accepted is one crown (\$0.203). No maximum limit is placed upon savings, but all sums deposited in excess of 4,000 crowns (\$812) for an individual, or 8,000 crowns (\$1,624) for an association or public body are invested by the bank in Government bonds. Three per cent interest on deposits is paid in post-office banks. As in Austria, the service includes a savings department and a check and clearing department.

On December 31, 1905, there were 563,973 depositors in the savings department, or 27.85 for each 1,000 inhabitants; their aggregate holdings amounted to \$13,951,346, an average of \$24.74 for each depositor. During the year 1905, 1,076,688 deposits amounting to \$11,158,625 and 542,519 withdrawals amounting to \$9,643,623 were made. In the check and clearing department there were 13,581 depositors (0.67 for each 1,000 of the population) at the close of the year, whose holdings aggregated \$13,008,688 or \$957.86 for each depositor, and by whom 8,349,603 deposits amounting to \$473,884,880 and 1,413,150 withdrawals amounting to \$471,591,200 had been made during the year.

#### HAWAII.

The Hawaiian Postal Savings Bank was established in 1886 under the provisions of a law passed in 1884. The law creating this department of the postal service has been amended from time to time. In revised form it provides that deposits of not less than 25 cents, or a multiple thereof, shall be received by the bank, and that interest shall be paid upon accounts amounting to \$5, or a multiple of \$5, up to a maximum of \$500. The shortest period for which deposits are received is one week. At the outset, interest was allowed on all sums up to \$2,500, but on October 1, 1892, the maximum interest bearing account was reduced to \$500. The law provides that sums in excess of \$2,500 deposited to any account shall be paid into the public treasury and treated as a part of the public debt, and makes provision for converting the holdings of depositors into Government bonds.

#### PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

By an act passed May 24, 1906, postal savings banks were established in the Philippine Islands to be administered through the Bureau of Posts by a postal savings bank division created for the purpose.

Three classes of banks are established, according to the amounts of deposits and withdrawals allowed. For the first class no maximum limit is placed upon deposits or withdrawals; for the second class both are restricted; and for the third class, only deposits made by the use of postal savings bank stamps are accepted, this class of banks being designed to encourage the saving of small sums, especially by school children. Deposits in stamps, pasted on cards provided for the purpose, are accepted at any postal savings bank in amounts equivalent to a peso (50 cents) or a multiple thereof. A peso is the minimum cash deposit accepted in any postal savings bank.

Deposit may be made by any resident of the Philippine Islands who is at least six years of age and not under legal disability. Certain special privileges are

accorded charitable and benevolent societies as depositors. The rate of interest on deposits is fixed at  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent "until practical experience shall demonstrate that a higher rate can safely be guaranteed." For individual depositors the maximum sum upon which interest will be paid is 1,000 pesos (\$500) and for charitable and benevolent societies, 2,000 pesos (\$1,000). Not more than two withdrawals may be made by a depositor in a month, and a delay of from two weeks to a month is allowed the bank in making repayment of deposits.

Investments of postal savings bank funds are made by the Postal Savings Bank Investment Board and are restricted to "(1) Bonds or other evidences of indebtedness of the United States; (2) Bonds or other evidences of indebtedness of the Insular Government of the Philippine Islands, of the city of Manila, and of certain other Philippine municipalities; (3) The stocks of banks doing business in the Philippine Islands having a paid-up capital of 1,500,000 pesos (\$750,000) or upwards; not over 10 per cent of the bank's total deposits are permitted to be invested in this class of securities; (4) The placing of funds on deposit, at interest, under proper security, in any bank situated in the United States or in the Philippine Islands having an unimpaired paid-up capital equivalent to 1,500,000 pesos or upwards; investments in the bonds of municipalities in the Philippine Islands outside the city of Manila are limited in amount to 10 per cent of the bank's total deposits."

All records of the postal savings banks are kept at the central office, and the local officers are allowed to hold only such limited funds as are required for carrying on business. Because of poor postal facilities in the islands, provision is made for withdrawals by telegraph. The treasurer of the Philippine Islands is instructed to keep all postal savings bank funds as a separate trust fund to be used only for the purposes provided by law.

A summary of the more important facts relative to postal savings banks is given in the following table. It is to be regretted that more complete information is not obtainable for Australia, New Zealand, Hawaii, and Japan.

#### *Recapitulation.*

COUNTRY.	Date of Establishment	Average Holdings of Each Depositor	Number of Depositors Dec. 31, 1905	Holdings of Depositors Dec. 31, 1905	Deposits Made in 1905	Withdrawals in 1905	Rate of Interest (Per Cent)	Minimum Deposit Accepted
Austria, . .	1882	\$22.39	1,900,194	\$42,536,862	\$27,550,545	\$24,951,316	3	\$0.20
Australia, . .		-	-	-	-	-	-	0.24
Belgium, . .	1865	65.59	2,311,845	151,640,983	66,740,356	66,669,449	3	0.19
Canada, . .	1868	1 277.96	1 164,542	1 45,736,489	1 10,805,458	12,324,529	3	1.00
France, . .	1882	53.90	4,577,390	246,703,726	95,508,306	82,162,926	2½	0.19
Great Britain, . .	1861	-	-	2 721,819,295	2 197,622,696	2 203,906,778	2½	0.24
Hawaii, . .	1886	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.25
Hungary, . .	1886	46.68	577,554	26,960,034	485,043,505	481,234,823	3	0.20
Italy, . .	1875	37.31	5,527,332	206,224,600	105,319,719	93,979,185	2.64	0.19
Japan, . .	1875	22.33	3 1,257,696	3 28,078,291	3 16,985,713	3 17,759,248	-	0.10
Netherlands, . .	1881	43.88	1,184,316	51,971,829	24,578,582	22,053,863	2.64	0.10
New Zealand, . .	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0.24
Philippine Islands, . .	1906	-	-	-	-	-	2½	0.50
Sweden, . .	1884	2 25.95	2 570,203	2 14,794,471	2 3,240,227	2 3,492,027	-	0.27

<sup>1</sup> June 30, 1906.

<sup>2</sup> December 31, 1904.

<sup>3</sup> December 31, 1896.

## THE MASSACHUSETTS STATE FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICE.

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We present herewith a summary of business done by the State Free Employment Office in Boston during the 100 days from December 3, 1906, to March 31, 1907. Table I is taken from the *State Free Employment Offices Gazette No. 5*.

**TABLE I.—Summary of Business Done—100 Days—December 3, 1906, to March 31, 1907.**

CLASSIFICATION.	74 Days— Dec. 3, 1906, to Feb. 28, 1907	26 Days— March 1, to March 31, 1907	100 Days— Dec. 3, 1906, to March 31, 1907
Registration of <b>Males</b> , . . . . .	12,973	3,495	16,468
Positions offered, . . . . .	6,433	2,552	8,985
Percentages — positions offered of registrations, . . . . .	<b>49.58</b>	<b>73.02</b>	<b>54.56</b>
Registration of <b>Females</b> , . . . . .	4,402	1,278	5,680
Positions offered, . . . . .	2,429	1,172	3,601
Percentages — positions offered of registrations, . . . . .	<b>55.18</b>	<b>91.71</b>	<b>63.40</b>
Total registrations, . . . . .	17,375	4,773	22,148
Total positions offered, . . . . .	8,862	3,724	12,586
Percentages — positions offered of registrations . . . . .	<b>51.00</b>	<b>78.02</b>	<b>56.83</b>
Persons called for by employers, . . . . .	9,466	4,537	14,003
Positions offered, . . . . .	8,862	3,724	12,586
Percentages — positions offered of persons called for, . . . . .	<b>93.62</b>	<b>82.08</b>	<b>89.88</b>

In Table II the industry classes are given for 3,848 persons for whom it is known that positions were actually obtained, as acknowledgment cards were received from the employers.

**TABLE II.—Positions Filled. Acknowledgment Cards Returned.**

INDUSTRY CLASSES.	Males	Females	Both Sexes
Government, . . . . .	1	—	1
Professional service, . . . . .	11	—	11
Domestic service, . . . . .	274	992	1,266
Personal service, . . . . .	164	175	339
Trade (mercantile service), . . . . .	491	172	663
Transportation service, . . . . .	176	—	176
Agriculture (farm laborers), . . . . .	137	6	143
The Fisheries, . . . . .	3	1	4
Manufactures, . . . . .	348	293	641
Laborers (general or day), . . . . .	248	—	248
Apprentices, . . . . .	180	10	190
Unskilled (not classified), . . . . .	133	33	166
TOTALS, . . . . .	2,166	1,682	3,848

Of the 2,166 males, 1,656 were single, 396 were married, while for 114 the conjugal condition was not stated.

Of the 1,682 females, 1,366 were single, 280 were married, while for 36 the conjugal condition was not given.

Of the total for both sexes (3,848), 3,022 were single, 676 were married, while the conjugal condition for 150 was not given.

The number of persons accounted for in Table II does not represent all the positions that have been actually filled up to March 31, but only shows the number of persons for whom acknowledgment cards have been

received from employers up to that date. Considerable difficulty has been experienced in securing the return of cards from employers stating whether they have or have not engaged the services of persons sent to them, but a gradual improvement in this respect is noted.

In some free employment offices, as the records are kept, if a person is sent to a position the place is considered as having been filled, but it has been deemed advisable in the Massachusetts Office to keep a record, first, of registration; second, of positions offered; and, third, of positions actually known to be filled as indicated by acknowledgment cards signed and returned by the employers. The office will not be able to state the exact number of persons securing employment until each employer returns the acknowledgment card with the proper information.

Of the 2,166 males, 501 stated upon registration blanks that they were boarding, 700 were at home, while in the case of 965 the inquiry was not answered.

Of the 1,682 females, 455 were boarding, 342 were at home, while for 885 the information could not be obtained.

Considering both sexes, of the total, or 3,848, 956 were boarding, 1,042 were at home, while for 1,850 the information was not obtained.

Table III shows place of birth, with classification by native and foreign born and by sex.

TABLE III.—*Place of Birth, by Native and Foreign Born and Sex.*

CLASSIFICATION.	Males	Females	Both Sexes	CLASSIFICATION.	Males	Females	Both Sexes
PLACE OF BIRTH. <i>Native Born.</i>	2,166 1,483	1,682 889	3,848 2,372	PLACE OF BIRTH — Con. <i>Foreign Born — Con.</i>			
Alabama, . . . . .	1	—	1	Barbadoes, . . . . .	2	—	2
California, . . . . .	2	1	3	Belgium, . . . . .	—	2	2
Colorado, . . . . .	1	—	1	Bermuda, . . . . .	1	—	1
Connecticut, . . . . .	15	13	28	British Guiana, . . . . .	1	—	1
District of Columbia, . . . . .	4	1	5	Bulgaria, . . . . .	—	1	1
Florida, . . . . .	2	—	2	Canada, . . . . .	33	42	75
Georgia, . . . . .	1	—	1	Cape Breton, . . . . .	7	7	7
Illinois, . . . . .	11	8	19	China, . . . . .	—	—	1
Indiana, . . . . .	3	2	5	Corsica, . . . . .	1	—	1
Iowa, . . . . .	—	3	3	Cuba, . . . . .	1	—	1
Kansas, . . . . .	1	—	1	Denmark, . . . . .	3	—	3
Kentucky, . . . . .	2	—	2	East Indies, . . . . .	1	—	1
Louisiana, . . . . .	1	1	2	Egypt, . . . . .	—	1	1
Maine, . . . . .	108	68	176	England, . . . . .	109	89	198
Maryland, . . . . .	8	3	11	Finland, . . . . .	2	—	2
Massachusetts, . . . . .	1,008	605	1,613	France, . . . . .	3	—	3
Michigan, . . . . .	2	—	2	Germany, . . . . .	21	13	34
Mississippi, . . . . .	1	—	1	Greece, . . . . .	8	—	8
Missouri, . . . . .	9	2	11	Holland, . . . . .	2	—	2
Montana, . . . . .	—	1	1	Hungary, . . . . .	3	—	3
New Hampshire, . . . . .	48	31	79	Ireland, . . . . .	193	358	551
New Jersey, . . . . .	2	8	10	Italy, . . . . .	22	3	25
New York, . . . . .	83	30	113	New Brunswick, . . . . .	24	35	59
North Carolina, . . . . .	3	5	8	Newfoundland, . . . . .	7	19	26
Ohio, . . . . .	13	2	15	Norway, . . . . .	5	10	15
Pennsylvania, . . . . .	13	11	24	Nova Scotia, . . . . .	58	92	150
Rhode Island, . . . . .	30	28	58	Poland, . . . . .	4	—	4
South Carolina, . . . . .	3	1	4	Porto Rico, . . . . .	1	—	1
South Dakota, . . . . .	1	—	1	Portugal, . . . . .	1	2	3
Tennessee, . . . . .	1	2	3	Prince Edward Island, . . . . .	16	27	43
Texas, . . . . .	1	1	2	Russia, . . . . .	93	24	117
Vermont, . . . . .	28	25	53	Scotland, . . . . .	26	43	69
Virginia, . . . . .	13	7	20	Shetland Isles, . . . . .	1	—	1
West Virginia, . . . . .	1	1	2	Spain, . . . . .	1	—	1
Wisconsin, . . . . .	1	4	5	Sweden, . . . . .	20	19	39
Not stated, . . . . .	62	25	87	Switzerland, . . . . .	1	—	1
Foreign Born.	683	793	1,476	Syria, . . . . .	6	1	7
Africa, . . . . .	1	—	1	Turkey, . . . . .	1	—	1
Argentina, . . . . .	1	—	1	Wales, . . . . .	3	—	3
Austria, . . . . .	3	4	7	West Indies, . . . . .	3	1	4

Of the 2,166 males, 1,483, or 68.47 per cent, were native born and 683, or 31.53 per cent, were foreign born.

Of the 1,682 females, 889, or 52.85 per cent, were native born and 793, or 47.15 per cent, were foreign born.

Considering both sexes, of the total (3,848), 2,372, or 61.64 per cent, were native born and 1,476, or 38.36 per cent, were foreign born.

Of the 1,483 males who were native born, 1,008, or 67.97 per cent, were born in Massachusetts.

Of the 889 females who were native born, 605, or 68.17 per cent, were born in Massachusetts.

Of the 2,372 of both sexes who were native born, 1,613, or 68.00 per cent, were born in Massachusetts.

Of the 1,476 of both sexes who were foreign born, 551, or 37.33 per cent, were born in Ireland, while 1,186, or 80.35 per cent (including those born in Ireland), were born in some part of the British Empire.

The native-born applicants gave as their birthplaces, not including Massachusetts, 33 different States of the Union,<sup>1</sup> while the foreign-born applicants gave as their birthplaces 43 different foreign countries or well-known geographical divisions of such countries.

It was thought by many before the State Free Employment Office was established, and by some since, that the applications would be principally for domestic help and laborers. The results so far have shown that this is not the case, for the applicants represent a very wide range of employment. This fact will be evident from an inspection of Table IV, which follows, in which are given the occupations of the 3,848 persons who have been reported by employers as having been put at work, together with specification by sex and the wages received by them for their services.

TABLE IV.—*Occupations and Wages, by Sex.*

[In the following table, *n. s.* indicates "not specified;" *mob* means "per month with board;" *wkb* means "per week with board."]

MALES.	MALES—Con.
<b>Agents</b> (freight). 1, \$15.00.	<b>Apprentices</b> (gold beaters). 1, \$4.00.
<b>Agents</b> (real estate). 1, \$10.00.	<b>Apprentices</b> (gasfitters). 1, \$4.00.
<b>Apprentices</b> (bakery) 1, \$4.00.	<b>Apprentices</b> (gold stamping). 1, \$5.00.
<b>Apprentices</b> (bindery). 1, \$4.00; 2, \$4.50; total, 3; average per week, \$4.33.	<b>Apprentices</b> (groceries). 2, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; 2, \$7.00; 1, \$8.00; total, 6; average per week, \$6.33.
<b>Apprentices</b> (building). 1, \$4.50; 1, \$6.00; total, 2; average per week, \$5.25.	<b>Apprentices</b> (hats). 1, \$3.50; 1, \$6.00; total, 2; average per week, \$4.75.
<b>Apprentices</b> (cap shop). 1, \$3.50.	<b>Apprentices</b> (hostlers). 1, \$5.00.
<b>Apprentices</b> (carpets). 1, \$5.00.	<b>Apprentices</b> (kitchen work). 1, \$2.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 1, \$3.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); total, 2; average, \$2.50 ( <i>wkb</i> ).
<b>Apprentices</b> (cigars). 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 2; average per week, \$5.50.	<b>Apprentices</b> (leather). 1, \$3.50; 2, \$4.00; 1, \$5.00; total, 4; average per week, \$4.13.
<b>Apprentices</b> (confectionery). 2, \$5.00.	<b>Apprentices</b> (machinists). 1, \$5.40; 16, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 1, \$9.00; total, 19; average per week, \$6.18.
<b>Apprentices</b> (coppersmiths). 1, \$5.00.	<b>Apprentices</b> (manufactures, <i>n. s.</i> ). 1, \$3.50; 2, \$4.00; 7, \$5.00; 5, \$6.00; total, 15; average per week, \$5.10.
<b>Apprentices</b> (dry goods). 2, \$4.00; 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 4; average per week, \$4.75.	<b>Apprentices</b> (mechanics). 1, \$4.00.
<b>Apprentices</b> (electricians). 3, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 1, \$9.00; total, 5; average per week, \$5.10.	<b>Apprentices</b> (millinery). 2, \$4.00.
<b>Apprentices</b> (farming). 1, \$5.00.	
<b>Apprentices</b> (florists). 1, \$6.00.	

<sup>1</sup> Includes the District of Columbia.

TABLE IV.—*Occupations and Wages, by Sex*—Continued.

## MALES—Con.

<b>Apprentices</b> (packers). 1, \$4.00.	MALES—Con.
<b>Apprentices</b> (pattern makers). 1, \$4.00.	\$9.00; 4, \$10.00; 6, \$12.00; total, 16; average per week, \$9.44.
<b>Apprentices</b> (provisions). 1, \$6.00.	<b>Climbers</b> (gypsy moth). 1, \$12.00.
<b>Apprentices</b> (printing). 1, \$3.50; 7, \$4.00; 2, \$4.50; 1, \$5.00; 1, \$7.00; 1, \$8.00; total, 13; average per week, \$4.65.	<b>Coachmen</b> . 1, \$9.23; 1, \$10.00; total, 2; average per week, \$9.62.
<b>Apprentices</b> (shoes). 2, \$4.00; 2, \$6.00; total, 4; average per week, \$5.00.	<b>Coal passers</b> . 1, \$4.62; 1, \$9.00; 2, \$10.50; total, 4; average per week, \$8.66. — 3, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Apprentices</b> , n. s. 1, \$3.00; 36, \$4.00; 2, \$4.50; 19, \$5.00; 8, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 5, \$8.00; total, 72; average per week, \$4.81.	<b>Collectors</b> . 1, \$0.00.
<b>Artists</b> (scenic). 1, \$15.00.	<b>Compositors</b> . 2, \$9.00; 3, \$10.00; 2, \$12.00; 1, \$15.00; 2, \$18.00; total, 10; average per week, \$12.30.
<b>Attendants</b> . 5, \$4.62; 2, \$5.08; 2, \$10.00; total, 9; average per week, \$5.92. — 2, \$5.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 11, \$20.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 2, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 13; average, \$20.72 ( <i>mob</i> ).	<b>Cooks</b> . 1, \$5.00; 1, \$5.77; 1, \$6.92; 4, \$7.00; 4, \$8.00; 3, \$9.00; 13, \$10.00; 1, \$11.54; 9, \$12.00; 1, \$13.85; 5, \$15.00; 1, \$17.31; total, 44; average per week, \$10.46. — 1, \$5.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 1, \$6.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 2, \$7.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 1, \$8.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 1, \$13.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); total, 6; average, \$7.67 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 1, \$15.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$20.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 3; average, \$20.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Bakers</b> . 1, \$7.00; 1, \$12.00; total, 2; average per week, \$9.50.	<b>Carmakers</b> . 1, \$15.00; 2, \$16.50; total, 3; average per week, \$16.00.
<b>Bakers' helpers</b> . 1, \$7.00.	<b>Counter men</b> . 1, \$8.00.
<b>Bell boys</b> . 1, \$4.00; 1, \$4.62; 2, \$6.00; 1, \$7.50; total, 5; average per week, \$5.62. — 1, \$15.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$35.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 3; average, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).	<b>Cutters</b> (shoes). 1, \$9.00; 1, \$10.00; 1, \$12.00; 1, \$16.00; total, 4; average per week, \$11.75.
<b>Blacksmiths</b> . 3, \$15.00.	<b>Cutters</b> (skirts). 1, \$12.00.
<b>Blacksmiths' helpers</b> . 3, \$10.00.	<b>Cutting machine operators</b> . 1, \$5.00.
<b>Blockers</b> (machine shop). 1, \$12.00.	<b>Dishwashers</b> . 1, \$3.46; 1, \$3.69; 3, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 3, \$5.00; 1, \$5.77; 4, \$6.00; 2, \$7.00; 1, \$9.23; 1, \$10.00; total, 18; average per week, \$5.65. — 3, \$4.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 1, \$5.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 1, \$6.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 3, \$7.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); total, 8; average, \$5.50 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 2, \$20.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Bookbinders</b> . 1, \$5.00.	<b>Distributors</b> (circulars). 2, \$6.00; 1, \$12.00; total, 3; average per week, \$8.00.
<b>Bookkeepers</b> . 1, \$10.00; 4, \$12.00; 1, \$15.00; total, 6; average per week, \$12.17.	<b>Door boys</b> . 1, \$3.50.
<b>Bottle washers</b> . 3, \$7.00.	<b>Draughtsmen</b> (architectural). 1, \$25.00.
<b>Boys</b> (grocery). 1, \$4.00.	<b>Draughtsmen</b> (mechanical). 1, \$12.50.
<b>Boys</b> (insurance). 1, \$4.00.	<b>Drivers</b> (delivery wagons). 1, \$8.00; 1, \$11.00; total, 2; average per week, \$9.50.
<b>Boys</b> (printing). 2, \$5.00.	<b>Drivers</b> (milk wagons). 1, \$14.00. — 1, \$18.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 2, \$20.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 2, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 5; average, \$21.60 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Boys</b> (shoe store). 1, \$4.00.	<b>Drivers</b> , n. s. 1, \$12.00; 1, \$14.00; total, 2; average per week, \$13.00. — 1, \$4.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 3, \$20.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Brakemen</b> . 1, \$10.00.	<b>Electricians</b> . 1, \$12.00; 2, \$15.00; 1, \$21.00; total, 4; average per week, \$15.75.
<b>Brass finishers</b> . 1, \$10.00; 1, \$13.50; 1, \$15.00; total, 3; average per week, \$12.83.	<b>Elevator tenders</b> . 1, \$4.00; 1, \$4.15; 4, \$5.00; 6, \$6.00; 1, \$6.50; 5, \$7.00; 6, \$8.00; 3, \$9.00; 1, \$10.00; total, 25; average per week, \$6.81. — 1, \$5.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 1, \$30.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Brass molders</b> . 1, \$18.00; 1, \$21.00; total, 2; average per week, \$19.50.	<b>Employees</b> (bakery). 1, \$8.00.
<b>Brass polishers</b> . 2, \$12.00; 1, \$16.50; total, 3; average per week, \$13.50.	<b>Employees</b> (cigars). 3, \$6.00.
<b>Brass workers</b> . 1, \$5.00; 1, \$10.00; 1, \$15.00; total, 3; average per week, \$10.00.	<b>Employees</b> (leather). 1, \$4.00; 1, \$7.00; total, 2; average per week, \$5.50.
<b>Bunnie boys</b> . 2, \$4.00; 1, \$5.00; total, 3; average per week, \$4.33.	<b>Employees</b> (mills). 1, \$10.50; 1, \$20.00; total, 2; average per week, \$15.25.
<b>Butlers</b> . 1, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).	<b>Employees</b> (nickel plating). 1, \$5.00.
<b>Cabinet makers</b> . 1, \$15.00; 1, \$16.00; total, 2; average per week, \$15.50.	<b>Employees</b> (paints and oils). 1, \$6.00.
<b>Carpenters</b> . 3, \$12.00; 1, \$13.50; 1, \$14.00; 2, \$15.00; 6, \$19.68; 1, \$20.00; total, 14; average per week, \$16.54. — 1, \$20.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).	<b>Employees</b> (shoe shops). 1, \$5.00; 1, \$12.00; total, 2; average per week, \$8.50.
<b>Carpet beaters</b> . 2, \$9.60.	<b>Employees</b> (trunk factory). 1, \$5.00.
<b>Carriage washers</b> . 1, \$15.00.	<b>Engineers</b> (stationary). 2, \$10.00; 2, \$12.00; 4, \$15.00; 3, \$16.00; 2, \$18.00; 1, \$20.00; total, 14; average per week, \$14.86. — 1, \$5.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$55.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 2; average, \$52.50 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Cashiers</b> . 1, \$6.00.	<b>Errand boys</b> . 2, \$3.00; 17, \$3.50; 14, \$4.00; 6, \$4.50; 21, \$5.00; 1, \$5.50; 10, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00;
<b>Chausseurs</b> . 1, \$20.00.	
<b>Chefs</b> . 1, \$10.00; 1, \$15.00; total, 2; average per week, \$12.50. — 1, \$9.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ).	
<b>Chore boys</b> . 1, \$5.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ).	
<b>Clerks</b> (drug). 1, \$10.00; 1, \$12.00; total, 2; average per week, \$11.00.	
<b>Clerks</b> (grocery). 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; 1, \$8.00; 4, \$10.00; 4, \$12.00; total, 11; average per week, \$9.73.	
<b>Clerks</b> (order). 12, \$12.00; 1, \$14.00; total, 3; average per week, \$12.67.	
<b>Clerks</b> , n. s. 1, \$5.00; 3, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 1,	

<sup>1</sup> And commission.<sup>2</sup> And car fares.

TABLE IV.—*Occupations and Wages, by Sex—Continued.*

## MALES—Con.

1, \$10.00; total, 203; average per week, \$4.22.—  
1, \$4.00.

**Expressmen.** 1, \$14.00.

**Factory work** (boxes). 1, \$6.00.

**Factory work** (cigars). 2, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 3; average per week, \$5.33.

**Factory work** (ladies' belts). 1, \$4.00.

**Factory work**, n. s. 1, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 2, \$5.00; 4, \$7.00; 1, \$8.00; total, 9; average per week, \$6.06.

**Farm hands.** 1, \$2.30; 1, \$3.23; 3, \$4.04; 3, \$4.15; 14, \$4.62; \$1, 5.08; 16, \$5.77; 2, \$6.92; 1, \$9.00; 2, \$9.23; 2, \$10.00; 2, \$12.00; total, 48; average per week, \$5.78.—1, \$10.00 (*wkb*).—2, \$10.00 (*mob*); 8, \$15.00 (*mob*); 2, \$16.00 (*mob*); 6, \$18.00 (*mob*); 30, \$20.00 (*mob*); 3, \$22.00 (*mob*); 20, \$25.00 (*mob*); 5, \$26.00 (*mob*); 1, \$27.00 (*mob*); 2, \$30.00 (*mob*); total, 79; average, \$21.05 (*mob*).

**Firemen** (stationary). 2, \$3.23; 1, \$6.92; 1, \$8.05; 1, \$9.00; 2, \$9.23; 2, \$10.00; 1, \$10.50; 5, \$12.00; 1, \$12.25; 11, \$14.00; 12, \$15.00; 1, \$17.00; 1, \$18.00; total, 41; average per week, \$12.70.—1, \$6.00 (*wkb*); 1, \$8.00 (*wkb*); total, 2; average, \$7.00 (*wkb*).—1, \$25.00 (*mob*); 3, \$35.00 (*mob*); 2, \$40.00 (*mob*); total, 6; average, \$35.00 (*mob*).

**Fish cleaners.** 1, \$9.00.

**Fish cutters.** 1, \$12.00.

**Foremen** (machine shops). 1, \$25.00.

**Gardeners.** 1, \$15.00.—1, \$10.50 (*wkb*).—1, \$22.00 (*mob*); 1, \$25.00 (*mob*); total, 2; average, \$23.50 (*mob*).

**Gasfitters' helpers.** 1, \$6.00; 1, \$8.00; total, 2; average per week, \$7.00.

**Gangemen** (stone saws). 1, \$11.00.

**General work.** 9, \$4.00; 3, \$4.50; 1, \$4.62; 15, \$5.00; 1, \$5.19; 18, \$6.00; 6, \$7.00; 2, \$7.50; 5, \$8.00; 8, \$9.00; 15, \$10.00; 3, \$10.50; 2, \$11.54; 19, \$12.00; 1, \$13.00; 1, \$13.50; 1, \$15.00; total, 110; average per week, \$8.05.—1, \$3.00 (*wkb*); 1, \$6.00 (*wkb*); total, 2; average, \$4.50 (*wkb*).—1, \$8.00 (*mob*); 3, \$10.00 (*mob*); 3, \$18.00 (*mob*); 9, \$20.00 (*mob*); 1, \$25.00 (*mob*); total, 17; average, \$17.47 (*mob*).

**General work** (private families). 1, \$35.00 (*mob*).

**Grease collectors.** 1, \$6.00.

**Grinders** (rubber factory). 1, \$10.00.

**Helpers** (foundry). 2, \$9.00.

**Helpers** (grocery stores). 1, \$6.00.

**Helpers** (milk wagons). 1, \$5.77.—1, \$12.00 (*mob*).

**Helpers** (piano factory). 1, \$5.00.

**Hostlers.** 1, \$5.77; 4, \$10.00; 2, \$11.00; 1, \$14.00; 1, \$18.00; total, 9; average per week, \$11.09.—1, \$18.00 (*mob*); 1, \$25.00 (*mob*); total, 2; average, \$21.50 (*mob*).

**Hotel or restaurant work.** 1, \$4.62; 1, \$5.00; 4, \$6.00; 2, \$7.00; 2, \$8.00; 1, \$9.00; 4, \$10.00; 1, \$11.00; 1, \$11.54; 3, \$12.00; 1, \$15.00; total, 21; average per week, \$8.86.—2, \$5.00 (*wkb*); 2, \$6.00 (*wkb*); 1, \$7.50 (*wkb*); total, 5; average, \$5.90 (*wkb*).—1, \$20.00 (*mob*); 5, \$25.00 (*mob*); total, \$6.00; average, \$24.17 (*mob*).—1, \$9.60 and car fares.

**Housemen.** 1, \$10.00.—1, \$20.00 (*mob*); 2, \$25.00 (*mob*); 3, \$30.00 (*mob*); total, 6; average, \$26.67 (*mob*).

**Housemilts.** 1, \$15.00.

**Housework.** 1, \$4.62.

**Ice choppers** (ice cream factory). 1, \$10.00.

**Ice-cutters.** 3, \$6.00 (*wkb*).

## MALES—Con.

**Ice-men.** 3, \$12.00.—1, \$4.00 (*wkb*).—10, \$26.00 (*mob*).

**Iron workers.** 1, \$8.00; 1, \$10.00; 1, \$12.00; 1, \$15.00; 1, \$18.00; total, 5; average per week, \$12.60.

**Janitors.** 1, \$5.77; 1, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 3, \$8.00; 2, \$8.08; 1, \$9.00; 7, \$10.00; 1, \$11.00; 4, \$12.00; 1, \$14.00; 2, \$16.00; total, 24; average per week, \$10.12.—1, \$7.00 (*wkb*).—1, \$25.00 (*mob*); 1, \$35.00 (*mob*); 1, \$50.00 (*mob*); total, 3; average, \$36.67 (*mob*).

**Kitchen work.** 1, \$2.30; 1, \$3.69; 1, \$4.62; 4, \$5.00; 2, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 3, \$8.00; 2, \$10.00; total, 15; average per week, \$6.24.—1, \$3.00 (*wkb*); 8, \$4.00 (*wkb*); 5, \$5.00 (*wkb*); 3, \$6.00 (*wkb*); 1, \$7.00 (*wkb*); 1, \$7.50 (*wkb*); 3, \$8.00 (*wkb*); total, 22; average, \$5.30 (*wkb*).—2, \$15.00 (*mob*); 5, \$20.00 (*mob*); 2, \$25.00 (*mob*); total, 9; average, \$20.00 (*mob*).

**Laboratory work.** 1, \$4.00.

**Laborers** (general). 1, \$4.15; 3, \$6.00; 1, \$6.92; 3, \$7.00; 10, \$7.20; 3, \$7.50; 9, \$8.00; 1, \$8.16; 7, \$8.40; 44, \$9.00; 5, \$9.60; 5, \$9.90; 11, \$10.00; 20, \$10.50; 1, \$10.80; 30, \$12.00; 1, \$12.25; 2, \$13.00; 1, \$14.00; 2, \$15.00; total, 160; average per week, \$9.69.—3, \$4.00 (*wkb*).—1, \$15.00 (*mob*); 11, \$20.00 (*mob*); 2, \$25.00 (*mob*); 3, \$35.00 (*mob*); total, 17; average, \$22.94 (*mob*).

**Laundry workers.** 1, \$4.62; 2, \$8.00; 2, \$10.00; total, 5; average per week, \$8.12.

**Locksmiths.** 1, \$10.00.

**Lumber mill workers.** 1, \$15.00.

**Lunch carriers.** 1, \$5.00 and lunches.

**Lunch work.** 1, \$8.00.

**Machine operators.** 1, \$6.00; 1, \$8.00; total, 2; average per week, \$7.00.

**Machinists.** 1, \$5.00; 2, \$6.46; 2, \$9.00; 6, \$10.00; 9, \$12.00; 1, \$12.50; 4, \$13.00; 1, \$13.20; 4, \$13.50; 2, \$14.00; 2, \$14.40; 20, \$15.00; 7, \$16.50; 1, \$17.00; 7, \$18.00; 1, \$24.00; 1, \$25.00; total, 71; average per week, \$14.08.

**Machinists' helpers.** 2, \$5.00; 1, \$7.00; 2, \$8.00; 1, \$9.00; 3, \$10.00; 1, \$11.00; 2, \$12.00; total, 12; average per week, \$8.92.

**Managers** (hotels and restaurants). 1, \$15.00; 1, \$17.31; total, 2; average per week, \$16.16.

**Meat cutters.** 1, \$12.00; 1, \$18.00; total, 2; average per week, \$15.00.

**Office boys.** 2, \$3.00; 4, \$3.50; 35, \$4.00; 3, \$4.50; 10, \$5.00; 13, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 1, \$10.00; total, 69; average per week, \$4.62.

**Order boys.** 1, \$6.00.

**Orderlies.** 1, \$20.00 (*mob*).

**Overseers** (buildings). 1, \$18.00.

**Oystermen.** 1, \$10.00.

**Packers** (biscuit). 1, \$4.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 2; average per week, \$5.00.

**Packers** (in stores). 1, \$7.00; 1, \$10.00; total, 2; average per week, \$8.50.

**Packers** (soap). 1, \$4.00; 1, \$9.00; total, 2; average per week, \$6.50.

**Packers**, n. s. 1, \$4.00; 2, \$6.00; 2, \$8.00; 2, \$10.00; 2, \$12.00; total, 9; average per week, \$8.44.

**Painters** (carriage and house). 2, \$12.00; 2, \$15.00; 2, \$18.00; total, 6; average per week, \$15.00.

**Painters** (shades). 1, \$6.00.

**Painters** (signs). 1, \$16.00.

**Painters**, n. s. 3, \$12.00; 1, \$13.50; 5, \$15.00; 1, \$18.00; total, 10; average per week, \$14.25.

**Painters' helpers.** 1, \$7.00.

TABLE IV.—*Occupations and Wages, by Sex*—Continued.

MALES—Con.	MALES—Con.
<b>Picking over nuts.</b> 2, \$4.00.	<b>Traveling salesmen.</b> 1, \$12.00.
<b>Planing machine operators.</b> 1, \$13.00.	<b>Truckmen.</b> 1, \$12.00.
<b>Plumbers.</b> 1, \$9.00; 1, \$15.00; 2, \$21.00; total, 4; average per week, \$16.50.	<b>Ushers.</b> 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 2; average per week, \$5.50.
<b>Plumbers' helpers.</b> 1, \$3.00; 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; 1, \$8.00; 1, \$10.00; 1, \$12.00; total, 6; average per week, \$7.33.	<b>Waiters.</b> 1, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 1, \$4.85; 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; 1, \$6.92; 2, \$7.00; 6, \$8.00; 5, \$9.00; 1, \$10.00; 1, \$12.00; total, 21; average per week, \$7.63. — 1, \$3.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 1, \$4.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 2, \$6.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); total, 5; average, \$4.80 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 1, \$18.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 2; average, \$25.50 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Police work</b> (special). 1, \$14.00.	<b>Waste handlers.</b> 1, \$9.00.
<b>Porters.</b> 1, \$4.00; 1, \$5.00; 1, \$5.77; 3, \$6.00; 1, \$6.92; 1, \$7.00; 2, \$8.00; 2, \$9.00; 18, \$10.00; 7, \$12.00; total, 37; average per week, \$9.32. — 2, \$5.50 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 3, \$6.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 2, \$7.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); total, 7; average, \$6.14 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 4, \$20.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 3, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 2, \$30.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$40.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 10; average, \$25.50 ( <i>mob</i> ).	<b>Watchmakers.</b> 1, \$18.00.
<b>Press feeders.</b> 4, \$8.00; 4, \$9.00; 1, \$10.00; 1, \$12.00; 1, \$13.00; total, 11; average per week, \$9.36.	<b>Watchmen.</b> 2, \$10.00; 2, \$12.00; total, 4; average per week, \$11.00. — 1, \$5.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ).
<b>Pressmen.</b> 1, \$10.00; 1, \$10.50; 2, \$12.00; 1, \$16.00; total, 5; average per week, \$12.10.	<b>Weavers.</b> 1, \$10.00; 2, \$12.00; total, 3; average per week, \$11.33.
<b>Printers.</b> 1, \$12.00; 1, \$14.00; total, 2; average per week, \$13.00.	<b>Weighers.</b> 1, \$5.00.
<b>Pullers over.</b> 1, \$6.00.	<b>Window cleaners.</b> 1, \$6.00; 1, \$7.20; 2, \$9.00; 1, \$12.00; total, 5; average per week, \$8.64.
<b>Repairers</b> (stoves). 1, \$10.00.	<b>Wiremen.</b> 1, \$9.00.
<b>Roofers' helpers.</b> 1, \$5.00; 3, \$12.00; total, 4; average per week, \$10.25.	<b>Woodchoppers.</b> 9, \$6.92; 1, \$10.00; 2, \$12.00; total, 12; average per week, \$8.02. — 7, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$30.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 6, \$35.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 14; average, \$29.64 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Bubber factory operatives.</b> 4, \$9.00.	<b>Woodworkers.</b> 1, \$5.00.
<b>Salesmen.</b> 2, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 1, \$10.00; 6, \$12.00; 1, \$15.00; 2, \$20.00; total, 13; average per week, \$12.00.	<b>Wool sorters.</b> 2, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; total, 4; average per week, \$5.75.
<b>Servants.</b> 1, \$10.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 1, \$20.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 2; average, \$22.50 ( <i>mob</i> ).	<b>Yard men.</b> 1, \$6.92. — 1, \$30.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Sheet metal workers.</b> 2, \$7.00.	FEMALES.
<b>Shippers.</b> 1, \$5.00; 6, \$6.00; 2, \$7.00; 6, \$8.00; 2, \$9.00; 4, \$10.00; 2, \$10.50; 3, \$12.00; total, 26; average per week, \$8.38.	<b>Accountants.</b> 1, \$6.00.
<b>Shoemakers.</b> 1, \$9.00; 1, \$18.00; total, 2; average per week, \$13.50.	<b>Addressers.</b> 2, \$3.00; 1, \$3.50; 4, \$4.00; 5, \$5.00; 3, \$6.00; total, 15; average per week, \$4.57.
<b>Solderers.</b> 1, \$12.00.	<b>Apprentices</b> (boxes). 2, \$4.00.
<b>Sole cutters.</b> 1, \$4.00.	<b>Apprentices</b> (dressmaker). 1, \$5.00.
<b>Solicitors.</b> 2, \$6.00; 1, \$15.00; total, 3; average per week, \$9.00.	<b>Apprentices</b> (furrier work). 1, \$4.00.
<b>Stablemen.</b> 2, \$5.77; 1, \$9.00; 2, \$10.00; 2, \$12.00; 1, \$15.00; total, 8; average per week, \$9.94. — 1, \$17.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$30.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 2; average, \$23.50 ( <i>mob</i> ).	<b>Apprentices</b> (glazing tiles). 2, \$4.50.
<b>Steamfitters.</b> 1, \$13.50; 2, \$15.00; 1, \$18.00; 1, \$21.00; total, 5; average per week, \$16.50.	<b>Apprentices</b> (lace curtains). 2, \$4.00.
<b>Stenographers.</b> 1, \$9.00; 1, \$10.00; 1, \$15.00; total, 3; average per week, \$11.33.	<b>Apprentices</b> (leather work). 1, \$4.00.
<b>Stock boys.</b> 2, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 1, \$6.00; 2, \$8.00; total, 6; average per week, \$5.75.	<b>Attendants.</b> 1, \$2.30; 1, \$9.00; total, 2; average per week, \$5.65. — 1, \$29.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Supers</b> (theatrical). 6, \$3.00.	<b>Bench work</b> (leather). 1, \$5.00.
<b>Tailors.</b> 1, \$13.00; 1, \$16.00; total, 2; average per week, \$14.50.	<b>Bookbinders.</b> 1, \$4.00.
<b>Teamsters.</b> 3, \$6.00; 1, \$7.50; 1, \$9.00; 20, \$10.00; 1, \$10.50; 3, \$11.00; 48, \$12.00; 1, \$13.00; 6, \$14.00; 1, \$15.00; 2, \$18.00; total, 87; average per week, \$11.52. — 4, \$6.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 3, \$20.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$25.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 7, \$35.00; total, 11; average, \$30.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).	<b>Bookkeepers.</b> 4, \$5.00; 3, \$6.00; 2, \$7.00; 3, \$8.00; 2, \$10.00; 3, \$12.00; total, 17; average per week, \$7.76.
<b>Teamsters' helpers.</b> 1, \$4.00; 2, \$4.62; 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 1, \$9.00; 1, \$9.23; total, 8; average per week, \$6.18.	<b>Boxmakers.</b> 3, \$5.00.
<b>Tenders</b> (bowling alleys). 1, \$8.00.	<b>Calendar work.</b> 1, \$5.00.
<b>Theatre work.</b> 1, \$3.00.	<b>Candy wrappers.</b> 1, \$3.50; 1, \$4.00; total, 2; average per week, \$3.75.
<b>Ticket takers.</b> 1, \$5.00.	<b>Canvassers.</b> 1, \$5.00; 3, \$6.00; 2, \$7.00; 1, \$8.00; total, 7; average per week, \$6.43. — 3, \$6.00, expenses and commission.
<b>Tool makers.</b> 1, \$19.50; 1, \$21.00; total, 2; average per week, \$20.25.	<b>Case makers</b> (jewelry and eye glass). 2, \$4.00.
	<b>Cash girls.</b> 1, \$4.00.
	<b>Cashiers.</b> 1, \$4.00; 1, \$5.00; 6, \$6.00; 1, \$6.50; 1, \$12.00; total, 10; average per week, \$6.35.
	<b>Chambermaids.</b> 3, \$3.00; 3, \$3.23; 2, \$3.46; 7, \$3.50; 1, \$3.69; 12, \$4.00; 2, \$4.15; 1, \$4.50; 11, \$5.00; 1, \$5.50; 1, \$7.00; total, 44; average per week, \$4.14.
	<b>Chefs</b> (assistant). 1, \$16.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).
	<b>Cleaners.</b> 4, \$3.00; 1, \$3.20; 2, \$3.23; 1, \$3.46; 1, \$3.69; 8, \$4.00; 5, \$4.50; 9, \$5.00; 18, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 6, \$7.20; 5, \$9.00; total, 61; average per week, \$5.43. — 6, \$6.00 and dinners. — 1, \$6.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 1, \$13.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 2, \$15.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$16.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 4; average, \$14.75 ( <i>mob</i> ).
	<b>Comb makers</b> (sets stones). 1, \$8.00.

TABLE IV.—*Occupations and Wages, by Sex—Continued.*

## FEMALES—Con.

**Companions.** 1, \$3.00.  
**Compositors.** 1, \$9.00.  
**Clerks.** 1, \$5.00; 2, \$6.00; total, 3; average per week, \$5.67.  
**Cooks.** 1, \$2.50; 1, \$3.00; 5, \$4.00; 1, \$4.15; 1, \$4.27; 1, \$4.62; 25, \$5.00; 1, \$5.50; 25, \$6.00; 16, \$7.00; 21, \$8.00; 4, \$9.00; 4, \$10.00; total, 106; average per week, \$6.36.—2, \$5.00 (*wkb*); 2, \$6.00 (*wkb*); 2, \$7.00 (*wkb*); total, 6; average, \$6.00 (*wkb*).—2, \$18.00 (*mob*); 1, \$25.00 (*mob*); total, 3; average, \$20.33 (*mob*).

**Copy readers.** 1, \$4.00.

**Counting shoes.** 2, \$5.00.

**Day work.** 1, \$3.46; 1, \$5.00; total, 2; average per week, \$4.23.—1, \$4.50 (*wkb*).

**Dishwashers.** 1, \$2.50; 3, \$3.00; 1, \$3.40; 1, \$3.50; 11, \$4.00; 6, \$4.50; 11, \$5.00; 5, \$6.00; 1, \$7.20; total, 41; average per week, \$4.57.—1, \$2.50 (*wkb*); 2, \$3.50 (*wkb*); 1, \$4.00 (*wkb*); total, 4; average, \$3.38 (*wkb*).—1, \$14.00 (*mob*).

**Dressmakers.** 1, \$3.00; 1, \$6.00; 1, \$10.00; total, 3; average per week, \$6.33.

**Dust samples.** 3, \$4.00.

**Embroiderers.** 1, \$6.00.

**Employees** (bakery). 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 2; average per week, \$5.50.

**Employees** (photographs). 1, \$3.50.

**Employees** (shop work). 1, \$4.00; 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 3; average per week, \$5.00.

**Employees** (store work). 1, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; total, 2; average per week, \$4.25.

**Envelope makers.** 1, \$4.00.

**Errand girls.** 1, \$3.00; 2, \$3.50; 2, \$4.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 6; average per week, \$4.00.

**Factory work** (art). 8, \$4.00; 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 1, \$9.00; total, 12; average per week, \$4.92.

**Factory work** (belts). 2, \$4.00; 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 4; average per week, \$4.75.

**Factory work** (bobinette ruffler). 1, \$5.00.

**Factory work** (box). 7, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 2, \$5.00; 2, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; total, 13; average per week, \$4.73.

**Factory work** (confectionery). 1, \$3.50; 3, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; total, 5; average per week, \$4.00.

**Factory work** (fur sewers). 1, \$4.00.

**Factory work** (gluing dress shields). 1, \$5.00.

**Factory work** (jewelry boxes). 3, \$4.00; 2, \$5.00; 3, \$6.00; total, 8; average per week, \$5.00.

**Factory work** (labelers). 1, \$3.50; 2, \$4.00; total, 3; average per week, \$3.83.

**Factory work** (lace curtains). 1, \$3.00.

**Factory work** (net and twine). 1, \$5.00.

**Factory work** (novelties). 1, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; total, 2; average per week, \$4.25.

**Factory work** (nut). 1, \$4.00; 2, \$6.00; total, 3; average per week, \$5.33.

**Factory work** (shoes). 1, \$4.00; 1, \$5.00; total, 2; average per week, \$4.50.

**Factory work** (shoe polish). 1, \$6.00.

**Factory work** (silk winders). 1, \$4.50.

**Factory work** (stitchers). 2, \$4.00; 3, \$5.00; 1, \$5.50; 2, \$6.00; 2, \$7.00; 1, \$12.00; total, 11; average per week, \$6.05.

**Factory work** (wire stitchers). 1, \$4.00.

**Factory work**, n. s. 4, \$3.50; 26, \$4.00; 1, \$4.06; 9, \$4.50; 25, \$5.00; 10, \$6.00; 3, \$7.00; total, 88; average per week, \$4.64.

**Farm work.** 2, \$3.46; 1, \$4.50; 1, \$9.23; total, 4; average per week, \$5.16.

**Feeders** (mangle work). 1, \$6.00.

## FEMALES—Con.

**Filling and wrapping.** 2, \$4.00.

**Folders.** 1, \$4.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 2; average per week, \$5.00

**Foreladies.** 3, \$7.00.

**General work.** 2, \$3.00; 14, \$4.00; 1, \$4.06; 2, \$4.50; 6, \$5.00; 1, \$5.19; 1, \$5.42; 2, \$6.00; total, 29; average per week, \$4.40.—3, \$3.50 (*wkb*); 1, \$4.00 (*wkb*); total, 4; average, \$3.63 (*wkb*).—1, \$20.00 (*mob*).

**Hall girls** (helpers). 1, \$2.77.—1, \$12.00 (*mob*).

**Herring cutters.** 1, \$3.00.

**Hotel or restaurant work.** 3, \$3.00; 1, \$3.23; 2, \$4.00; 5, \$5.00; total, 11; average per week, \$4.11.—1, \$5.00 (*wkb*); 1, \$6.00 (*wkb*); total, 2; average, \$5.50.—1, \$15.00 (*mob*); 1, \$16.00 (*mob*); total, 2; average, \$15.50 (*mob*).

**Housekeepers.** 4, \$2.00; 1, \$2.30; 1, \$2.50; 9, \$3.00; 4, \$3.50; 1, \$3.69; 10, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 11, \$5.00; 2, \$6.00; 1, \$6.92; total, 45; average per week, \$3.90.—1, \$3.00 (*wkb*).—1, \$16.00 (*mob*); 1, \$30.00 (*mob*); total, 2; average, \$23.00 (*mob*).

**Housework** (general). 5, \$2.00; 2, \$2.30; 13, \$2.50; 47, \$3.00; 1, \$3.23; 1, \$3.46; 41, \$3.50; 1, \$3.69; 118, \$4.00; 19, \$4.50; 1, \$4.62; 54, \$5.00; 6, \$6.00; 3, \$7.00; 1, \$9.60; total, 313; average per week, \$3.96.—2, \$2.00 (*wkb*); 1, \$2.50 (*wkb*); 1, \$3.50 (*wkb*); 2, \$4.00 (*wkb*); 1, \$5.00 (*wkb*); total, 7; average, \$3.29 (*wkb*).—1, \$16.00 (*mob*); 1, \$17.50 (*mob*); total, 2; average, \$16.75 (*mob*).

**Inspectors** (carbon paper). 1, \$6.00.

**Inspectors** (ineandescent lamps). 1, \$8.00.

**Ironing belts.** 1, \$5.00.

**Kitchen work.** 1, \$2.00; 1, \$2.40; 3, \$3.00; 1, \$3.23; 6, \$3.50; 1, \$3.69; 46, \$4.00; 27, \$4.50; 30, \$5.00; 1, \$5.50; 3, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 1, \$9.00; total, 122; average per week, \$4.40.—1, \$3.00 (*wkb*); 3, \$3.50 (*wkb*); 3, \$4.00 (*wkb*); 4, \$4.50 (*wkb*); total, 11; average, \$3.95 (*wkb*).—2, \$13.00 (*mob*); 2, \$16.00 (*mob*); 1, \$18.00 (*mob*); total, 5; average, \$15.20 (*mob*).

**Label cutter.** 1, \$5.00.

**Labelers.** 1, \$3.00; 6, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 4, \$5.00; 8, \$6.00; total, \$29.00; average per week, \$4.98.

**Laboratory work.** 1, \$4.00; 4, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 6; average per week, \$5.00.

**Ladies' maids.** 1, \$8.00.

**Laundresses.** 1, \$3.00; 2, \$3.69; 3, \$4.00; 4, \$4.50; 1, \$4.62; 8, \$5.00; 4, \$5.08; 5, \$6.00; 1, \$7.50; total, 29; average per week, \$4.92.—1, \$4.50 (*wkb*).—2, \$16.00 (*mob*); 2, \$20.00 (*mob*); total, 4; average, \$18.00 (*mob*).

**Laurel wreath makers.** 1, \$4.00.

**Leather workers.** 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 2; average per week, \$5.50.

**Lunch counter girls.** 1, \$6.00.

**Mailing calendars.** 1, \$7.00.

**Mailing,** n. s. 2, \$4.00.

**Markers** (stock room). 1, \$4.00.

**Mimeograph work.** 1, \$4.00.

**Mothers' helpers.** 1, \$2.00 (*mob*).

**Nurse maids.** 1, \$2.50; 5, \$3.00; 1, \$3.40; 9, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 2, \$5.00; 1, \$9.00; total, 20; average per week, \$4.02.—2, \$2.00 (*wkb*); 2, \$3.50 (*wkb*); total, 4; average, \$2.75 (*wkb*).

**Nurses.** 2, \$2.50; 1, \$6.00; 1, \$8.16; 1, \$10.00; total, 5; average per week, \$5.33.

**Office work.** 4, \$3.50; 9, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 13, \$5.00; 11, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 1, \$8.00; total, 40; average per week, \$5.01.—1, \$12.00 (*mob*).

TABLE IV.—*Occupations and Wages, by Sex—Concluded.*

FEMALES—Con.

<b>Packers.</b>	1, \$4.00.
<b>Pantry girls.</b>	1, \$2.77; 1, \$3.00; 4, \$3.23; 1, \$3.46; 10, \$4.00; 1, \$4.15; 2, \$4.50; 4, \$5.00; 1, \$5.77; 1, \$6.00; total, 26; average per week, \$4.12. — 1, \$3.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 3, \$4.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); total, 4; average, \$3.75 ( <i>wkb</i> ). — 3, \$12.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 2, \$13.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 4, \$14.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 1, \$16.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 10; average, \$13.40 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Paper flower makers.</b>	1, \$2.50.
<b>Parlor maids.</b>	3, \$4.00.
<b>Pasting corks to wooden tops.</b>	1, \$9.00.
<b>Picking over nuts.</b>	1, \$3.00; 1, \$4.00; total, 2; average per week, \$3.50.
<b>Plate press feeders.</b>	1, \$4.00.
<b>Power machine work.</b>	1, \$6.00.
<b>Press clipping.</b>	2, \$4.00; 2, \$4.50; 1, \$6.00; total, 5; average per week, \$4.60.
<b>Publishers</b> (light work).	1, \$3.50.
<b>Saleswomen.</b>	1, \$3.50; 5, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 8, \$5.00; 13, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; 2, \$8.00; total, 31; average per week, \$5.45. — 1, \$4.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ).
<b>Scrub women.</b>	1, \$3.00; 1, \$3.69; 1, \$4.00; 1, \$4.50; 2, \$5.00; 3, \$6.00; 1, \$7.20; 1, \$9.00; total, 11; average per week, \$5.40 — 2, \$15.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); 7, \$16.00 ( <i>mob</i> ); total, 9; average, \$15.78 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Seamstresses.</b>	1, \$2.30; 1, \$3.00; 1, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; 2, \$7.00; total, 6; average per week, \$5.05. — 1, \$3.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ).
<b>Second girls.</b>	4, \$3.00; 2, \$3.50; 6, \$4.00; 3, \$4.50; 3, \$5.00; total, 18; average per week, \$3.97. — 1, \$4.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ).
<b>Sewers</b> (hats).	2, \$5.00; 1, \$6.00; total, 3; average per week, \$5.33.
<b>Shirt makers.</b>	1, \$6.00.

FEMALES—Con.

<b>Space work.</b>	1, \$3.50. — 2, \$16.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Spare girls.</b>	1, \$16.00 ( <i>mob</i> ).
<b>Stenographers.</b>	3, \$5.00; 7, \$6.00; 2, \$7.00; 7, \$8.00; 5, \$10.00; total, 24; average per week, \$7.37.
<b>Stitchers</b> (leather).	1, \$6.00; 1, \$7.00; total, 2; average per week, \$6.50.
<b>Stitchers,</b> n. s.	3, \$5.00; 4, \$6.00; 4, \$7.00; 1, \$10.00; total, 12; average per week, \$6.42.
<b>Stuffing dates.</b>	1, \$4.50.
<b>Switchboard operators.</b>	1, \$5.00.
<b>Table work.</b>	2, \$3.50; 2, \$3.69; 6, \$4.00; 4, \$5.00; total, 14; average per week, \$4.17. — 1, \$4.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ).
<b>Telegraph operators.</b>	1, \$5.00.
<b>Title work</b> (applying enamel).	1, \$4.50.
<b>Tinseling cords.</b>	2, \$3.00; 3, \$4.00; total, 5; average per week, \$3.60.
<b>Traveling saleswomen.</b>	1, \$6.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ).
<b>Trimmers</b> (ladies' belts).	1, \$3.00.
<b>Trouser makers.</b>	1, \$10.00.
<b>Tying and banding stationery.</b>	1, \$4.00.
<b>Typewriters.</b>	1, \$5.00.
<b>Waitresses.</b>	10, \$3.00; 2, \$3.46; 14, \$3.50; 2, \$3.69; 13, \$4.00; 6, \$4.50; 43, \$5.00; 12, \$6.00; 1, \$8.00; total, 103; average per week, \$4.53. — 3, \$3.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); 1, \$4.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ); total, 4; average, \$3.25 ( <i>wkb</i> ).
<b>Ward maids.</b>	1, \$5.00; 1, \$7.00; total, 2; average per week, \$6.00. — 1, \$4.00 ( <i>wkb</i> ).
<b>Washerwomen.</b>	1, \$6.00; 4, \$7.20; 2, \$9.00; total, 7; average per week, \$7.54.
<b>Wrappers.</b>	3, \$3.50; 1, \$4.00; total, 4; average per week, \$3.63.
<b>Writers.</b>	2, \$3.50; 2, \$4.00; 4, \$5.00; total, 8; average per week, \$4.38.

The 2,166 males found places in 204 branches of occupations, and the 1,682 females in 127 branches of occupations.

The table just considered shows occupations and wages by sex. In Table V, which follows, the occupations are given by sex, but with the total of each sex and the number for both sexes in connection with the branch of occupation.

TABLE V.—*Occupations by Sex.*

CLASSIFICATION.	Males	Females	Both Sexes	CLASSIFICATION.	Males	Females	Both Sexes
Accountants, . . . .	—	1	1	Butlers, . . . .	1	—	1
Addressers, . . . .	—	15	15	Cabinet makers, . . . .	2	—	2
Agents, . . . .	2	—	2	Calendar work, . . . .	—	1	1
Artists (scenic), . . . .	1	—	1	Canvassers, . . . .	2	10	12
Apprentices, . . . .	180	10	190	Cash girls, . . . .	—	1	1
Attendants, . . . .	24	4	28	Cashiers, . . . .	1	10	11
Automobile repair work, . . . .	1	—	1	Carpenters, . . . .	18	—	18
Bakers, . . . .	4	3	7	Carpet beaters, . . . .	2	—	2
Bell boys, . . . .	9	—	9	Chafeurs, . . . .	1	—	1
Bench work, . . . .	—	2	2	Chamberwork, . . . .	—	48	48
Bevelers (plate glass), . . . .	2	—	2	Chefs, . . . .	5	1	6
Blacksmiths, . . . .	7	—	7	Chore boys, . . . .	1	—	1
Blockers (machine shop), . . . .	1	—	1	Cleaners, . . . .	2	69	71
Bookbinders, . . . .	1	1	2	Clerks, . . . .	31	4	35
Bookkeepers, . . . .	6	17	23	Climbers (gypsy moth), . . . .	1	—	1
Bottle washers, . . . .	4	—	4	Coachmen, . . . .	3	—	3
Boxmakers, . . . .	—	3	3	Coal passers, . . . .	7	—	7
Boys (printing office), . . . .	2	—	2	Collectors, . . . .	1	—	1
Brakemen, . . . .	1	—	1	Comb makers (sets stones), . . . .	—	1	1
Brass workers, . . . .	11	—	11	Companions, . . . .	—	1	1
Bundle boys, . . . .	4	—	4	Compositors, . . . .	11	1	12

TABLE V.—*Occupations by Sex—Concluded.*

CLASSIFICATION.	Males	Females	Both Sexes	CLASSIFICATION.	Males	Females	Both Sexes
Copy readers,	—	1	1	Pantry work,	1	40	41
Cooks,	52	119	171	Paper flower makers,	—	1	1
Coremakers,	4	—	4	Paperhangers,	3	—	3
Counter men,	1	—	1	Parlor maids,	—	3	3
Counting shoes,	—	2	2	Pasting corks to wooden tops,	—	1	1
Cutting machine operators,	1	—	1	Picking over nuts,	2	1	3
Day work,	—	6	6	Planing machine operators,	1	—	1
Demonstrators,	—	1	1	Plate press feeders,	—	1	1
Dishwashers,	28	47	75	Plumbers,	11	—	11
Distributors (circulars, etc.),	3	—	3	Police work (special),	1	—	1
Draughtsmen,	3	—	3	Porters,	59	—	59
Dressmakers,	—	3	3	Press clipping,	—	4	4
Drivers,	14	—	14	Press feeders,	11	—	11
Door boys,	1	—	1	Pressmen (job),	5	—	5
Dusting samples,	—	3	3	Printers,	3	1	4
Electricians,	11	—	11	Publishers,	—	2	2
Elevator tenders,	30	—	30	Pullers over,	1	—	1
Embroiderers,	—	1	1	Roofers,	4	—	4
Enameler (tiles),	—	1	1	Salemen, .	13	34	47
Engineers (stationary),	15	—	15	Scrub men,	3	20	23
Envelope makers,	—	1	1	Seamstresses,	—	7	7
Errand boys,	215	6	221	Second girls,	—	19	19
Factory work, n. s.,	28	176	204	Sewers (hats),	—	3	3
Farmers,	154	5	159	Sheet metal workers,	2	—	2
Firemen (stationary),	51	—	51	Shippers,	27	—	27
Fish cleaners,	1	—	1	Shoe factory workers,	11	—	11
Fish cutters,	1	—	1	Shop work,	2	4	6
Folders,	1	2	3	Skirt cutters,	1	—	1
Foremen,	1	2	3	Soldiers (silver),	1	—	1
Gardeners,	4	—	4	Solicitors,	8	—	8
Gasfitters,	2	—	2	Space work,	—	3	3
Gaugemen,	1	—	1	Spare girls,	—	1	1
General work,	146	25	171	Stablemen,	11	—	11
Grease collectors,	1	—	1	Steamfitters,	7	—	7
Grindlers (rubber shop),	1	—	1	Steam pipers,	—	1	1
Handlers (iron),	3	—	3	Stenographers,	2	24	26
Helpers (stores, etc.),	8	—	8	Stitchers,	—	25	25
Herring cutters,	—	1	1	Stock boys,	6	1	7
Hostlers	15	—	15	Store work,	—	3	3
Hotel and restaurant work,	46	20	66	Stove repair work,	1	—	1
Housekeepers,	—	51	51	Stuffing dates,	—	4	4
Housemen,	4	—	4	Supers (theatrical),	7	—	7
Housesmith,	1	—	1	Switchboard operators,	—	1	1
Housework,	2	344	346	Table work,	—	15	15
Ice workers,	18	—	18	Tackers (shoes),	—	2	2
Inspectors,	—	2	2	Tailors,	2	—	2
Iron workers,	2	—	2	Teamasters,	122	—	122
Ironing belts,	—	1	1	Teamasters' helpers,	13	—	13
Janitors,	35	—	35	Telegraph operators,	—	1	1
Kitchen work,	51	139	190	Tenders (bowling alleys),	1	—	1
Labelers,	—	20	20	Theatre work,	1	—	1
Laboratory work,	—	6	6	Ticket takers,	1	—	1
Laborers,	179	—	179	Time box workers,	1	—	1
Ladies' maids,	—	1	1	Tinseling cords,	—	5	5
Laundry work,	5	36	41	Tool makers,	2	—	2
Laurel wreath makers,	—	1	1	Traveling salesmen,	2	1	3
Leather workers,	3	2	5	Trimmers (belts),	—	1	1
Locksmiths,	1	—	1	Trouser makers,	—	1	1
Lumber mill workers,	1	—	1	Truckmen,	1	—	1
Lumpers,	7	—	7	Tying and banding stationery,	—	1	1
Lunch carriers,	1	—	1	Typewriters,	—	1	1
Lunch counter work,	3	1	4	Ushers,	2	—	2
Machine operators,	1	—	1	Waiters,	32	110	142
Machinists,	83	—	83	Ward maids,	—	3	3
Machinists' helpers,	18	—	18	Washerwomen,	—	8	8
Mailing, n. s.,	—	4	4	Waste handlers,	1	—	1
Managers (hotels),	2	—	2	Watchmakers,	1	—	1
Meat cutters,	4	—	4	Watchmen,	6	—	6
Mill hands,	2	—	2	Weavers,	4	—	4
Millinery,	1	—	1	Weighers,	—	1	1
Mother's helpers,	—	1	1	Window washers,	4	—	4
Nickel plating,	1	—	1	Wiremen,	1	—	1
Nurses,	—	4	4	Wood choppers,	27	—	27
Nursemaids,	—	25	25	Wood work operators,	1	—	1
Office work, .	78	53	131	Wool sorters,	4	—	4
Orderlies,	1	—	1	Wrappers,	—	6	6
Oystermen,	1	—	1	Writers,	—	6	6
Packers,	13	2	15	Yard men, .	2	—	2
Painters,	20	—	20				

There are some notable lines in this presentation. It will be seen that 180 male apprentices and 10 female apprentices have been supplied with positions; six male and 17 female bookkeepers; 18 carpenters; 48

chambermaids; 71 cleaners; 35 clerks; 171 cooks; 75 dish washers; 30 elevator tenders; 221 errand boys; 204 factory workers; 159 farmers; 51 stationary firemen; 171 general workers; 66 in hotel and restaurant work; 51 housekeepers; 346 in housework; 190 in kitchen work; 179 laborers; 41 laundry workers; 83 machinists; 131 in office work; 20 painters; 41 in pantry work; 59 porters; 47 salesmen; 27 shippers; 26 stenographers; 25 stitchers; 122 teamsters; 142 waiters; and 27 wood choppers.

TABLE VI.—*Employment and Unemployment.*

INDUSTRY CLASSES.	MALES		FEMALES	
	AVERAGE MONTHS —		AVERAGE MONTHS —	
	Employed	Unemployed	Employed	Unemployed
Government,	6.00	6.00	—	—
Professional,	11.14	0.86	—	—
Domestic service,	9.97	2.03	9.46	2.54
Personal service,	10.77	1.23	9.66	2.34
Trade,	9.93	2.07	7.25	4.75
Transportation,	10.50	1.50	—	—
Agriculture,	10.63	1.37	8.00	4.00
Fisheries, The	10.00	2.00	10.00	2.00
Manufactures,	10.60	1.40	7.94	4.06
Mining,	—	—	—	—
Laborers,	10.20	1.80	—	—
Apprentices,	10.18	1.82	9.50	2.50
Unskilled workmen,	9.66	2.34	8.48	3.52

The preceding table shows by industry classes, with specification by sex, the average number of months of employment and unemployment reported by persons who secured positions. It will be noted that the months of unemployment, as regards males, range from a minimum of a little over three-fourths of a month in the case of professional service to six months in the case of government employees; as regards females, from two months in the case of those employed in the fisheries to four and three-fourths months for those employed in trade. As noted in the last report, the females who secured employment had been out of work for a much longer time than the males.

Employers in the various lines of industry call, as a rule, for skilled help; that is, they require some previous acquaintance with the business. In Table VII, which follows, the experience of persons obtaining situations is shown by industry classes, with specification as regards sex.

TABLE VII.—*Experience of Persons Obtaining Situations.*

INDUSTRY CLASSES.	MALES			FEMALES		
	Number Considered	Aggregate Experience	Average Experience	Number Considered	Aggregate Experience	Average Experience
		Years Months	Years		Years Months	Years
Government,	—	—	—	—	—	—
Professional,	6	41	8	6.94	—	—
Domestic service,	231	1,657	7	7.18	916	7,941
Personal service,	137	1,279	9	9.34	160	1,372
Trade,	272	745	9	2.74	125	281
Transportation,	155	1,289	5	8.32	—	—
Agriculture,	118	1,052	1	8.92	5	47
Fisheries, The	3	23	10	7.94	—	—
Manufactures,	278	2,379	10	8.49	229	667
Mining,	—	—	—	—	—	—
Laborers,	189	1,666	2	8.82	—	—
Apprentices,	45	55	7	1.24	3	5
Unskilled workmen,	87	525	11	6.05	27	180

There are 1,521 males and 1,465 females reported in the preceding table, or a total of 2,986. There were 34 males and 36 females who reported no experience, while for 611 males and 181 females the amount of experience was not stated.

For males the length of experience ranges from 1.24 years for apprentices to 9.34 years for those engaged in personal service; for females, from 1.92 years for apprentices to 9.45 years for those engaged in agricultural pursuits.

The industry classification as given in Table VIII covers from December 7, 1906, to March 31, 1907, and represents 19,673 applications. The number in each industry class and the percentage for each class of the total number are shown.

TABLE VIII.—*Industry Classes. Numbers and Percentages.*

INDUSTRY CLASSES.	Employees' Applications Filed	Percentages	INDUSTRY CLASSES.	Employees' Applications Filed	Percentages
Government service, . . .	9	0.05	The Fisheries, . . .	2	0.01
Professional service, . . .	66	0.33	Manufactures, . . .	4,113	20.91
Domestic service, . . .	4,705	23.92	Mining, . . .	9	0.05
Personal service, . . .	2,015	10.24	Laborers (general or day), . . .	1,806	9.18
Trade (mercantile service), . . .	3,895	19.80	Apprentices, . . .	980	4.98
Transportation service, . . .	1,443	7.33	TOTALS, . . .	19,673	100.00
Agriculture (farm laborers), . . .	630	3.20			

It will be noted that those in domestic service numbered 4,705, or 23.92 per cent, this industry class being the largest as regards both number and percentage. The next largest class is manufactures, with a total of 4,113, or 20.91 per cent; the next largest, trade (mercantile service), with a total of 3,895, or 19.80 per cent; next in order is personal service, with 2,015, or 10.24 per cent; next, laborers (general or day), with 1,806, or 9.18 per cent. These five industry classes represent 16,534 out of the 19,673, or 84.05 per cent.

In Table IX are shown by sex the classified ages of the 19,673 persons who made applications for positions.

TABLE IX.—*Employees by Sex and Age.*

SEX AND CLASSIFIED AGES.								Numbers	Percentages
Males: 14, 15 years, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	389	1.98
16-20 years, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	3,477	17.67
21 years and over, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	10,580	53.78
Females: 14, 15 years, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	73	0.37
16-20 years, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	1,188	6.02
21 years and over, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	3,969	20.18
TOTALS, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	19,673	100.00
Both Sexes: 14, 15 years, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	462	2.35
16-20 years, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	4,662	23.70
21 years and over, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	14,549	73.95
TOTALS, . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	19,673	100.00

This table shows that 389 males and 73 females under 16 years of age applied for work, a total for both sexes of 462. No children under 14 years of age applied for positions.

Of the young persons from 16 to 20 years of age, or 4,662, 3,477 were males and 1,185 were females. Of the 14,549 adults, 10,580 were males and 3,969 were females. Of the whole number of applicants, 2.35 per cent were under 16 years of age; 23.70 per cent from 16 to 20 years of age; and 73.95 per cent, 21 years of age and over.

## TRADE UNION NOTES.

[This section is intended to record, as far as possible, matters of current information regarding trade unions, particularly those of Massachusetts, and those internationals with which the local unions are affiliated.]

### The First Trades' Union.

For the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* Prof. John R. Commons, of the University of Wisconsin, has written a short article on "Labor Organization and Labor Politics, 1827-37." This article opens with the somewhat surprising remark that "England is considered the home of trade unionism, but the distinction belongs to Philadelphia. Modern trade unionism as an industrial and political force began with the coming together of previously existing societies from the several trades to form a central body on the representative principle. . . . This was the beginning not only of trade unions, but even of the term 'trades' union.'"<sup>1</sup>

In support of his first statement, Professor Commons says: "The first trades' union in England was that of Manchester, organized in 1829, although there seems to have been an attempt to organize one in 1824. But the first one in America was the 'Mechanics' Union of Trade Associations,' organized in Philadelphia in 1827, two years earlier. The name came from Manchester, but the thing from Philadelphia. Neither union lasted long. The Manchester union lived two years, and the Philadelphia union one year. But the Manchester union died, and the Philadelphia union metamorphosed into politics. Here, again, Philadelphia was the pioneer, for it called into being the first labor party. Not only this, but through the Mechanics' Union Philadelphia started probably the first wage-earners' paper ever published, — *The Me-*

*chanics Free Press*, — antedating, in January, 1828, the first similar journal in England by two years. A three years' file of the paper is preserved in perfect condition by the Pennsylvania Historical Society. The political movement, begun in Philadelphia, was taken up by New York, Albany, and Troy in 1829, by Boston in 1830, and by other places in the same years. It disappeared altogether in 1831, after the older political parties had borrowed its planks and captured its leaders."

The origin and a short history of the first trades' union are described by Professor Commons in the following paragraph:

"The Mechanics' Union of Philadelphia sprang from an unsuccessful strike of the carpenters for a ten-hour day. There the labor party held the balance of power in two elections, and all of its candidates who were endorsed by the Adams and Jackson parties were elected. Even the Congressional candidates of the older parties flung out their banners as the 'true workingmen's party,' and appropriated the slogan of '6 to 6' which the workingmen had used to indicate their demand for the ten-hour day. The labor party disappeared entirely in 1830, and the American politician had learned for the first time how to split the labor vote."

According to Professor Commons the period 1827 to 1837 saw "the beginnings not only of the general organization of labor, but also of humanitarian and reform movements. The industrial revolution was under way, but its substantial basis — the railway — was not yet

<sup>1</sup> It may be of interest in this connection to note that the term "trades' union" originally indicated a union of trade societies (known at the present time by such names as Central Labor Union, Trades Council, etc.), but when the general public came to know and to take alarm at labor organizations, which was when these societies joined themselves in unions of trades, the name trades' unions was transferred to the isolated organizations of trade unions.

a factor. In general, the period was that of the sudden and rough awakening of labor as a distinct element in American history. For the first time magazines and newspapers gave space to labor problems. Humanitarians began to examine the conditions of working and living. Politicians put labor planks in their platforms. Protectionism framed its pauper labor argument, and manufacturers proceeded to capitalize the labor movement. Some demands were immediately granted, others remotely."

In this connection we may say that as early as September, 1832, a convention of delegates from the farmers, mechanics, and workingmen of New England adopted resolutions setting forth burdens suffered by laboring classes from excessive hours, imprisonment for debt, the lack of a lien law, onerous militia service, and various other causes. On January 21, 1834, a meeting was held to form a general trades' union, and in March of the same year a constitution for this union was submitted and ratified by the trades. Records do not show the outcome of this movement, but indications are that it formed a part of the movement for the general organization of labor in this part of the country.

#### Labor's View of Technical Education.

At the 11th annual convention of the Colorado State Federation of Labor held at Colorado Springs, September 4-27, 1906, the following significant resolution was adopted:

WHEREAS, The welfare of society depends upon the standard of intelligence and education of its members; and as an efficient standard of education can only be attained by training the hands, as well as the brains, of the young; and as, in our present public school system, very little, if any, manual training is taught in the lower grades; and as economic conditions prevent the great mass of parents from sending their children to the high schools or the higher institutions of learning, be it

*Resolved*, That our public school system should be improved by the introduction of manual training into the lower grades, to the end that the children of all, poor as well as rich, may receive the training necessary to make them good citizens and useful members of society.

Above resolution was passed by Denver Trades and Labor Assembly, and delegates of the assembly were instructed to present it to this Convention.—*Report of Proceedings, Colorado State Federation of Labor, 1906.*

#### Labor in Great Britain.

The *London Financial Times*, speaking about the labor vote in that country, says that it created during the past year a definite Labor party in Parliament.

This new party is pledged by its constitution to socialism, but there are two wings, and

practically one-half of the party are out of harmony with the cardinal principles of the constitution which they have signed. Mr. Keir Hardie was elected chairman by a majority of one vote, and the *Times* says that the battle between the two sections is likely to be renewed in the near future. Industrial peace has been secured in the federated mining districts in England and North Wales for a further period of three years by the agreement signed by the representatives of the coal owners and miners in December. Under this the men receive five per cent advance in wages from the first making-up day in January. There is a clause in the agreement by which, in the event of the passing into law of the "Mines eight-hour bill" by Parliament, either party may terminate the agreement at six months' notice, which is regarded as an indication that in the opinion of both the miners and the coal owners the passage of the eight-hour bill has become a probable event of the near future. The labor men received a setback in their strike on the Clyde. After a costly struggle the men had to return, defeated, to work. Conciliation is said to have become a more general method of arranging wage questions in the United Kingdom.—*Daily Consular and Trade Reports, January 28, 1907.*

#### Trade Unionism and Politics in Germany.

In an article which appeared in the Twenty-ninth Quarterly Report of the General Federation of Trade Unions, Mr. Edward Bernstein, a member of the German Reichstag, writes of "The Relation of Social Democracy and Trade Unionism in Germany." He opens the article with the statement that "The Mannheim Congress of the German Social Democratic Party (September 23-29, 1906) settled a question which had for several years occupied no little time in the debates of German Socialists and Trade Unionists, and threatened at times to cause, if not a split, at least a serious estrangement between these two great wings of the German Labour movement."

The question at issue related to the proper sphere or domain of trade unionism. As worded by Mr. Bernstein the question was threefold. "Is it [trade unionism] to be a subordinate movement only to the political movement of the working classes, as represented in Germany by the Social Democratic party; is it to be the co-ordinated equal of that movement; or is it rather to be the superior of that movement, dictating to it its policy, so that in fact the political Labor party would practically, and in time perhaps also theoretically, become a Trade Unionist Party?" This question in one form or another became a prominent one in the labor movement in Germany as early as 1894, when the Social Democratic party in convention at Cologne passed a resolution making it the imperative duty of every member of the party to join the trade union of his

trade, except where forcible reasons intervened. Seven years later a dispute between trade unionists led to dissensions in a branch of the Social Democratic party, and the matter was thoroughly discussed at the Congress of the political party at Lubeck in 1901. Efforts were made to secure harmonious action throughout the entire labor movement, but without any marked success until 1906, when the whole matter was considered at the Mannheim Congress of the Social Democratic party. At this Congress, August Bebel, as the leader of the political party, and Karl Legien, as the representative of the trade unions, were designated respectively as referent and co-referent in an attempt to settle the disputes between the organizations which they represented. These leaders found that all previous disputes seemed to have resolved themselves into one distinct question, namely: "Should the trade unions engage in a political general strike at the possible call of the Social Democratic party?" In answer to this comprehen-

sive question they drew up a resolution to the effect that the Social Democratic party recognized the general trade union body as the equal of the political party; that the party should not undertake any great action involving the trade unions without having previously consulted the responsible leaders of the latter, but that the party would act unwisely if it put the leaders of the trade unions under obligations which would make the unions appear as mere trade branches of the political party. The Congress did not accept the resolution at once but postponed it for a year, awaiting further consideration by the parties concerned. But the fact that peaceful negotiations were entered into by the leaders of the respective bodies gives assurance that harmonious action in labor matters has at last been secured, while at the same time the growth and essential independence of German trade unionism has been recognized by the Social Democratic party.

## INDUSTRIAL AGREEMENTS.

### BOSTON.

#### BOTTLERS AND DRIVERS.

*Bottlers and Drivers Union No. 122 and Employers.*

1. None but members of Bottlers and Drivers Union No. 122 shall be employed in bottling establishments. Boys under 21 and women and girls are not included in this contract. Girls and boys shall do such work as hand-labeling, hand-wiring, tin-foiling, and putting on wrappers. In case the union is unable to furnish a man satisfactory to the employer in case of need, it shall be the privilege of the employer to engage any man he wishes, and such employee shall be admitted to the union.

2. Nine hours shall constitute a day's work. All time over that shall be considered overtime, except that no overtime shall be allowed to route drivers or strikers unless required to do other than their regular work. No man shall refuse to work overtime, but he shall not be obliged to work on Sunday, except teamsters or strikers who shall give one hour to the care of their horses.

3. In case of sickness or accident, any employee shall be entitled to employment in his former capacity when he is able to perform his duties, provided he applies within three months.

4. Every man discharged by a subordinate officer shall, if he so desires, be given a hearing by the proprietor, president, or general man-

ager, whose decision shall not be subject to arbitration. At such hearing the business agent of the union may be present.

5. In case of slack business as many men as necessary may be laid off alternately, not longer than one week at a time, all men taking their turn as far as possible without interfering with the business.

6. Men employed in bottling establishments for 12 consecutive months shall be considered as regular employees. Extra help employed during the busy season shall not be considered as regular employees and shall be entitled to temporary employment only. Vacancies among the regular employees may, if needed, be filled from the extra help hired. No help shall be hired upon the recommendation of a customer.

7. Foremen employed in the bottling establishment shall not do work belonging to members of this union.

8. The minimum weekly rate of wages shall be:

Drivers,	. . . . .	\$15
Strikers,	. . . . .	12
Machine operators and bottlers,		14
Packery,	. . . . .	13
Other employees,	. . . . .	12

Overtime shall be paid at the rate of 30 cents an hour.

Trip strikers, not regular employees, shall be paid at the rate of 30 cents an hour. Present wages shall not be reduced.

9. Permanent employees and extra men

shall do whatever work may be required of them, but in performing duties other than their regular work they shall be paid the schedule rate for the work performed, but in no such case shall the rate of wages be reduced. No division of time shall be made for less than one-half a day.

10. In case of grievances or differences between the employer and employees, on any matter except the discharging of men and other cases not expressly covered by articles in this agreement, the matter shall be laid before an arbitration committee, consisting of five members, two of whom shall be appointed by the employer, and one of the two so appointed shall not be in any way interested in the brewing or bottling industry; two shall be appointed by the employees, and one of the two so appointed shall not be a member of any national or international union, the members of which are employees of breweries or bottling shops; the fifth man shall be selected by the four men appointed as above, and shall not be in any way interested in the brewing or bottling industry or be a member of any labor organization. Or the case may be by mutual consent submitted to the State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration, and both the employer and employees shall abide by the decision of said committee or State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration. Pending the settlement of any dispute by arbitration, no strike or lockout shall be declared.

11. This contract shall remain in force until March 1, 1909, and continue annually thereafter unless notice has been given by either party thereto three months before the first of March of any year, and specifications of the proposed changes shall be submitted at least 60 days prior to March 1.

Indorsed by Executive Board International Union United Brewery Workers of America.

Indorsed by Joint Local Executive Board, Boston, Massachusetts.

#### Rockport.

##### QUARRY WORKERS.

*International Union of Quarry Workers and the Branches of Cape Ann, and Employers.*

1. On and after June 4, 1906, eight hours shall constitute a day's work.

2. Men working in stone sheds in any capacity or loading vessels, when necessary, shall work nine hours at the same rate of pay per hour. All work after nine hours shall be paid for as time and one-quarter, and Sundays and holidays shall be paid as double time. Holidays to be observed shall be Memorial Day, July 4th, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas.

3. Quarrymen, derrickmen, and air-p'ug drillers shall receive from 18 to 23 cents an hour.

4. Competent men operating steam or air

tripod drills shall receive from 24 to 28 cents an hour.

5. Green hands shall receive from 15 to 18 cents an hour according to ability.

6. Men shovelling coal in vessel's hold shall receive 25 cents an hour.

7. Competent carpenters and boxers shall receive from 23 to 26 cents an hour.

8. Blacksmiths shall receive from 31 to 35 cents an hour.

9. Men attending cranes in stone sheds shall receive from 23 to 26 cents an hour.

10. The whistle shall blow five minutes before and again at time to start work.

11. No unnecessary delay shall occur in men receiving their pay on the regular pay day.

12. It is mutually agreed by the parties hereto that should a disagreement of any kind arise it shall be settled by and between the employers and employees on the works where the dispute arises. Pending such settlement, it is agreed that there shall be no strike, lockout, or suspension of work. If they fail to agree, the dispute shall be left to a committee of three, one to be selected by the manufacturers, one by the employees, the third to be selected by the two so appointed, and he must be a disinterested party, the decision of a majority to be final. Decision to be rendered within 10 days.

13. That this agreement shall apply to the entire granite industry of Cape Ann; to take effect June 4, 1906, and to remain in force until March 1, 1908. If either party desires a change at that time, notice shall be given in writing, specifying changes desired, at least three months previous to that date. If no notice be given, then this agreement shall hold in force for another year, and from year to year thereafter, with notice of change as provided above.

#### PAVING CUTTERS.

*Paving Cutters Nos. 52 and 53, and Employers.*

The following prices shall prevail for cutting paving blocks from ordinary stock as it comes from the quarry, quality and size to average the same as it has for the past four years.

Where ordinary stock is unreasonably poor, assistance will be furnished in drilling as heretofore.

Grout stock shall receive the same advance as ordinary stock, namely, \$1 a thousand.

1. Paving blocks 10 inches to 14 inches long, to average 12 inches in length, 4 inches to 5 inches wide, to average 4½ inches, 7 inches to 8 inches deep; \$23.50 a thousand. It is understood if above blocks are required one-quarter of an inch less in width or depth that price for one or both shall be the same.

2. Paving blocks 9 inches to 14 inches long, to average 11½ inches in length, 3½ inches to 4½ inches wide, 7½ inches to 8 inches deep; price shall be \$23.50 a thousand.

3. Paving blocks 10 inches to 14 inches long, to average 12 inches in length, 4 inches to 5 inches wide, average 4½ inches in width,

6 inches to 7 inches deep or  $5\frac{3}{4}$  inches to  $6\frac{3}{4}$  inches deep, as may be required; price shall be \$20 a thousand.

4. Paving blocks 9 inches or 10 inches to 14 inches long, to average 11 inches or  $11\frac{1}{2}$  inches in length as may be required,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches wide, 6 inches to 7 inches or  $5\frac{3}{4}$  inches to  $6\frac{3}{4}$  inches deep; price shall be \$20 a thousand.

5. Paving blocks 8 inches to 12 inches long, to average 10 inches,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches, or 3 inches to 4 inches wide, 6 inches to 7 inches deep; \$18 a thousand.

6. Paving blocks 8 inches to 12 inches long,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches wide, 5 inches to 6 inches deep, to average 10 inches long; \$17 a thousand. If only one-half inch is allowed on width or depth, \$18 a thousand.

7. Paving blocks 8 inches to 12 inches long,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches to  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches wide, 7 inches to 8 inches deep, to average 10 inches x 4 inches x  $7\frac{1}{2}$  inches; \$20.50 a thousand.

8. Paving blocks 7 inches to 9 inches long, 3 inches to  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches wide,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches to 4 inches deep; \$17 a thousand.

9. Paving blocks 8 inches to 12 inches long;  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches to 4 inches wide, 6 inches to  $6\frac{1}{2}$  inches deep; \$18.50 a thousand.

That if any special paving block, other than those specified above, is required, the price for cutting same shall be proportionately equal to the rate paid for cutting other blocks as named above.

That no discrimination be shown to any man by either employer or employee.

This proposition to take effect June 18, 1906, and to stay in force until March 1, 1908.

Should either party desire a change at the expiration of said period, three months' notice shall be given previous to March 1, 1908, in writing, specifying changes desired. If no notice be given, then this agreement shall hold in force for another year, and from year to year thereafter, with notice of change as provided above.

It is mutually agreed by the parties hereto, that should a disagreement of any kind arise it shall be settled by and between the employers and employees on the works where the dispute arises. Pending such settlement it is agreed that there shall be no strike, lockout, or suspension of work; the same failing to agree, the dispute to be left to a committee of three, one to be selected by the manufacturers, one by the employees, the third to be selected by the two so appointed, and he must be a disinterested party, the decision of a majority to be final. Decision to be rendered within 10 days.

#### Canada.

#### BOILERMAKERS.

*Agreement between the Canadian Pacific Railway Company and Boilermakers.*

1. Boilermakers' work shall consist of laying out, marking off, fitting up, flanging, chipping,

caulking, patching, and all work pertaining to air, steam, oil and water tight work and operating the hydraulic riveter.

2. a. The following hours will govern all shops and round houses: In all shops and round houses 10 hours to constitute a day's work. The working hours will be from 7 A.M. to 6 P.M., with one hour off for dinner from 12 M. to 1 P.M. on the first five days of the week. On Saturday the hours will be from 7 A.M. to 5 P.M., with one hour for dinner from 12 M. to 1 P.M., from October 1 to April 1, and from 7 A.M. to 12 M. the balance of the year.

b. For night men in shops the hours will be from 6 P.M. to 6 A.M. with one-half hour for supper. Twelve hours' pay will be allowed for same five nights a week.

c. The night staff in round houses will work from 7 P.M. to 6 A.M., with half an hour for meals, for which 11 hours' straight time will be allowed except on Sundays and specified holidays, when time and one-half will be allowed.

3. Overtime rates shall be as follows: From the close of shop hours to midnight, time and one-half; after midnight, double time. Sundays and all Dominion holidays, that is, New Year's Day, Good Friday, Victoria Day, Dominion Day, Labor Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas will be paid at the rate of time and one-half.

4. The amount of time to be allowed a boilermaker or apprentice called after working hours up to 10 P.M. shall be two and one-half hours; after that hour, five hours; if the hours worked entail a further allowance, overtime rates will be paid.

5. The company may lengthen or shorten the working hours as the business may necessitate, but when the company shortens the hours overtime rates shall be paid after the shortened hours.

6. When boilermakers are sent out on the road temporarily to work they shall receive straight time from the time called and while traveling. Necessary expenses will be refunded provided receipts are attached to the expense voucher.

7. When a reduction of expenses becomes necessary men who have others depending upon them shall be given the preference of employment, character, seniority, and proficiency to govern.

8. No boilermaker or apprentice shall be discharged or suspended without just or sufficient cause. When discharged reasons shall be given showing the actual cause of the discharge, and if after proper investigation it shall be found that a boilermaker or apprentice has been unjustly discharged or suspended, he shall be reinstated within five days after discharge or suspensions, and all time lost during the investigation paid. Grievances shall be adjusted in the company's time.

9. Leave of absence and free transportation shall be granted to members of committees of

boilermakers for the adjustment of matters in dispute with the company as far as is consistent with good service.

10. Employees will be granted leave of absence and passes or reduced rates in accordance with current general regulations of the company.

11. The company will not in any way discriminate against any boilermaker in a committee duly authorized to see the management.

12. Any boy hereafter engaging himself to learn the trade must serve five years, be between the ages of 15 and 16 years, and be able to read and write English, also know the first four rules of arithmetic. The apprentice who, after serving one year, in the opinion of the foreman shows no aptitude for learning the trade shall be transferred or dismissed, and all obligations accepted by the company will, of necessity, be forfeited. It shall be the duty of the foreman and others in authority to advance apprentices as far as possible in all parts of the trade, especially in the last two years of apprenticeship. Apprentices shall receive the following rates:

	Cents an Hour
First year, . . . . .	9
Second year, . . . . .	11
Third year, . . . . .	13
Fourth year, . . . . .	16
Fifth year, . . . . .	22

The number of apprentices to the trade shall not exceed one for every five boilermakers employed.

13. The following rates will govern the trade:

	East of Paqua	West of Paqua
Boilermakers, . . . . .	38 cts.	40 cts.
Flanglers, Winnipeg, . . . . .	40½ cts.	—
Netting, ashpan and grate work, . . . . .	28 cts.	29 cts.

Tubers will be restricted to Fort William and Winnipeg back shops only. The minimum rates shall be as above, but new men without previous railway experience may be started at three cents less than the minimum rate for a period not exceeding two months.

14. Boilermakers required to do superior work shall be paid the rate for such work after the seventh day; should they be required to do such work for two weeks or over they shall be paid from the time they started at it.

15. Helpers shall not be advanced to the detriment of boilermakers or apprentices.

Whenever the necessities of the company require that tubers shall be appointed at the roundhouse to do boilermakers' work the established rating for boilermakers shall apply. It is agreed that the final appointment of such a man shall be approved by the general committee of the boilermakers.

16. It is open for the committee at any time to appeal from the foreman to the master mechanic, or to the highest officer of their department.

17. The foregoing articles shall be known as the Canadian Pacific Railway Company's schedule of rules and rates for the guidance of boilermakers, and will require 30 days' notice for amendment or annulment by either party.

Effective as regards rates September 1, 1906, and as regards hours October 1, 1906.

## RECENT COURT DECISIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

*Mechanic's Lien — Notice — Price.* — The New York Court of Appeals held, in the recent case of Finn v. Smith et al., that a notice of lien filed under the Mechanics' Lien Law must state either explicitly or by plain inference the value or the assessed price of the labor performed or materials furnished at the time of the filing, and that a notice that a lien was claimed on the property described "for \$5,889.60, being the value and agreed price of certain materials furnished and to be furnished, to wit, timber, lumber," etc., was an insufficient statement under the statute.

*Breach of Contract to Furnish Union-made Goods.* — In the recent case of Earnshaw v.

Whittemore et al., before the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, it appeared that the plaintiff, assignee of the Cumberland Glass Co., brought action to recover for goods sold defendants. Defendants alleged a breach of contract by company, through failure to employ only union workmen in making bottles for defendants. The Superior Court found for defendants and plaintiff excepted.

Although the original contract contained no provisions that bottles should be made by union workmen, a duly authorized indorsement, that "bottles called for on this contract are to be made by union workmen or this contract cancelled," was subsequently made upon the contract.

After repeated demands that the bottles of this description be furnished, company informed the defendants that compliance with the contract was impossible and suggested that they cancel the contract. The defendants declined to exercise their rights of termination and insisted upon performance, with a further claim for damages already suffered by reason of the failure to deliver the goods for which they had bargained, and also directed that their molds which had been in the possession of the vendor should be transferred to another manufacturer, which transfer was accordingly made.

The court held (1) that: the indorsement made upon the face of the contract must be deemed an additional agreement to be treated as a modification of the existing contract, which as thus modified is supported by the original consideration, and that the failure of the vendor to comply with the contract was the cause of its abandonment by the defendants upon whom by reason of an inexcusable breach the right of termination was conferred; (2) that, by refusing to carry out the contract, the vendor could not escape liability for damages which thereby resulted, as the option of cancellation was for the sole benefit of the vendee whose right to abandon did not arise until the breach; (3) that the right of one party to a contract of sale to be excused from further performance where the other party has absolutely refused to perform is distinct from a right to rescind, if rescission takes place a contract then ceases to exist, and not even normal damages can be recovered. By reason of this distinction, when the vendor absolutely refused to perform, the defendants not only became entitled to recover such damages as had been caused by the breach, but were excused from further performance upon their part; (4) that the order transferring the molds could not be deemed a breach by the defendants which destroyed their right to damages, as it was not given until the vendor had notified them of its inability to fulfill the contract and defendants were not thereby required to allow the molds to remain, but were at liberty to use them to their best advantage; (5) that the rulings requested but not given on this branch of the case therefore, were properly refused. If the plaintiff's assignor is precluded, the further question as to the validity of the assignment under which he claimed title becomes immaterial.

*Work of Minors and Women after 9 P.M. Prohibited.* — The Appellate Division of the New York Supreme Court upheld the decision of the Court of Special Sessions and pronounced unconstitutional the prohibition of work after 9 p.m. for minors and women in factories. This decision was not unanimous for the majority of the justices.

Justice Scott said: "The provision under examination is aimed solely against work at night, without regard to the length of time

during which work is performed or the conditions under which it is carried on, and in order to sustain the reasonableness of the provision we must find that, owing to some physical or nervous difference, it is more harmful for a woman to work at night than for a man to do so, for, concededly, the clause in question would be unconstitutional if it applied to men as well as to women. We are not aware of any such difference, and in all the discussions that have taken place none such has been pointed out."

On the other hand, Justice Houghton, in emphatic contradiction, said: "I think the act limiting the hours and times of day in which women may work in factories is a valid exercise of police power for the preservation of the public health, and is not in conflict with either the State or Federal constitution."

Justice Ingraham, also dissenting, adds: "Regulation by the Legislature as to the hours of labor by women when engaged in such work as would have a tendency to impair their health is, I think, within the power of the Legislature."

*The Legality of a Boycott in Germany.* — The decision of the German Imperial Court rendered July 12, 1906, recognizes the legality of a boycott in Germany. It should be noted, however, that a decision of the German Imperial Court has not the same absolute authority as that of one of the highest courts in the United States, since the German court is divided into a number of senates, the rulings of which do not always agree.

It appears that in 1904 organized bakery employees in a certain town demanded that the master bakers should no longer furnish them food or lodging, but in lieu thereof should pay them the sum of 12 marks per week, and they also demanded a certain minimum wage. A number of employers refused to grant the demand, and a strike ensued. The leaders of the strike then published certain material explaining their position and requesting their townsmen to procure their bread only from those bakeries which had granted the demands. A list of these bakeries was published. Even after the termination of the strike the boycott was continued.

The plaintiffs brought action to restrain further boycott and for compensation for the injury already suffered. The lower court dismissed the complaint, and the Supreme Court, on writ of error, upheld the decision. The more important clauses in the decision are as follows:

The formation of labor unions for the purpose of obtaining better conditions of work and of payment was recognized as lawful. The boycott and strike alike are weapons, the former seeking to curtail the sale of goods and the latter seeking to hinder their production, and each finds its counterpart in the weapons used

by employers. Neither in their purpose nor in the means they used did the defendants violate the general rules of fair and proper conduct. It does not matter whether their demands were justifiable or not; it is sufficient that they regarded them as just. In their publications they avoided personal recriminations, and in the main confined themselves to a request for aid, giving fairness in dealing to concerns granting the workmen's demands; nor was it contrary to the rule of fair conduct to apply for aid to others not immediately concerned in the struggle.

Free publicity and the removal of real or alleged evils is sought accordingly. The action of the union in question could not be regarded as violating the rules of fair dealing.—*Journal of Political Economy, November, 1906.* [Translation by Ernst Freund from *Deutsche Juristenzitung*, September 15, 1906.]

*Responsibility of Trade Union Officers in France.*—The *Musée Social, Annales* (Paris), for February, 1907, publishes an account of an interesting decision, rendered on November 13, 1906, by the Civil Court of Château-Gontier in the suit of a slate quarry workman against the officers of the central body of trade unions (*Chambre syndicale*). The workman had refused to join the union of his trade. To obtain his discharge the central organization ordered a strike against his employer, and the latter promptly discharged the non-union man. Other quarry owners refused to employ him, knowing that a strike would result if they did. The workman, unable to obtain employment, brought suit for damages against the six officers of the central organization of slate quarry workers. The Court rendered judgment in

favor of the plaintiff, requiring the officers of the union to pay, jointly and severally, to the injured workman damages of 3,000 francs (\$579).

The main points in the decision were: That it was not a question of a conflict between the quarry workers and their employer on a matter having to do with the defense of the economic, industrial, or commercial interests of the union; that the law of 1884 relative to trade unions forbids the coercing of any workman to become a member of a trade union; that, while a strike is lawful when resorted to as a means of defending trade interests, it is unlawful if it has for its purpose the attainment of any result in violation of the law; and that, therefore, the plaintiff was entitled to damages.

In rendering the decision the Court said, in part: "Sentencing a union, a moral body, to pay damages would in most cases be illogical, the dissolution of a union being a simple matter, as well as the replacing of the dissolved union within a short time by a new organization not burdened with the liabilities of the former. The representative (in this case the officials of the union) can be exempted from the prejudicial consequences of his acts by placing them entirely upon the represented (the union, a moral body) only when the question is one of acts stipulated by contract and of the lawful effects of these acts." The Court held that the joint responsibility of the officers of the union in the fault ought to entail their joint responsibility in the reparation; that it was a question of collective acts in which it was impossible to determine the part of each one; and that it was therefore proper to pronounce judgment against the officers, jointly and severally, for the damages allowed.

## EXCERPTS

### Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest.

#### **Assisted Immigration in South Carolina.**

The United States Department of Commerce and Labor published on December 26, 1906, a decision (No. 111) rendered by the Solicitor of the Department, stating that Mr. E. J. Watson, Commissioner of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration of South Carolina, in bringing about the immigration of a large body of aliens and placing them at work in that State, did not thereby violate the immigration laws of the United States.

In connection with the decision, a review of the case and certain official documents and

digests of legal decisions, bearing upon the case, were published.

In reviewing the case the solicitor stated: "It appears that the agricultural and manufacturing industries of South Carolina were languishing and in danger of material injury for lack of labor; that this was principally true of the cotton industry, fully 20 per cent of the spindles in the State being idle; that this condition would inevitably work to the injury not only of the operating companies and their stockholders, but to the injury of labor already employed; that the South Carolina mills had tried in the State itself, and adjoining States,

and in various parts of the United States to secure the necessary labor, but without success, by reason of the great demand for labor throughout the South; that the sanitary, educational, and living conditions provided for mill workers in the State, as well as the hours of labor required and the rate of wages paid, were satisfactory in themselves and were being constantly improved; that immense property values and the welfare of thousands of laborers are involved in the successful operation of the mills of South Carolina, wherefor not only the interests mentioned, but the State itself, would suffer from an insufficient supply of labor; that the mill owners, being forbidden by Federal law from themselves procuring the immigration of foreign contract laborers, were denied relief from this source unless the immigration of laborers could be secured through the agency of the State."

An appeal to the Legislature resulted in the passage of a bill approved February 23, 1904, creating "A State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration," and providing for a commissioner thereof who is authorized to assist in securing the immigration to South Carolina of citizens of the United States, Ireland, Scotland, Switzerland, France, and all other foreigners of Saxon origin. The sum of \$2,000 was appropriated to defray the expenses of the department and a further amount of \$30,000 or more, from private subscriptions, was also placed at the disposal of Mr. Watson, the commissioner who had been appointed. In the performance of these duties the commissioner made a trip abroad, appointed resident representatives of his department in various cities, supplying them with literature descriptive of South Carolina, inserted an advertisement in various newspapers, and arranged for the making of contracts with various workmen and for the establishment by the North German Lloyd Steamship Company of a direct steamship line between Bremen, Germany, and Charleston, S. C., for the transportation of immigrant laborers. As a result of these measures fully 500 laborers, principally from Belgium, Holland, and Germany, were admitted to the United States and distributed among employers in South Carolina, mostly among the cotton mills.

On the legality of the action by the commissioner, representing the State of South Carolina, a decision was called for from the United States Department of Commerce and Labor. This decision referred directly to the action of those who imported the foreign labor, and no determination was called for in respect to the liability of ship owners or transportation owners of the system, nor as to whether the immigrants themselves were legally admitted to the United States. So far as the State of South Carolina was concerned in having undertaken by legislative act to encourage immigration, it may be said that no such action on

its part was forbidden by the acts of commerce relative to the importation of foreign labor.

The idea of the State adopting as a governmental policy the promotion of immigration in aid of its industries was never broached, or, if broached, the need of regulating the execution of such a policy was never considered in connection with the National legislation. The apparent conflict between South Carolina legislation and the national immigration laws was considered at length in the decision, and cases were cited which seemed to bear upon the situation.

The course pursued by Mr. Watson as a State officer was next considered, and cases were cited showing that the intent of the national law was not to prevent the immigration of desirable laborers, but to prevent the adoption of a law grading all labor with native labor and resulting in the reduction of wages. Even were it shown that the State of South Carolina, represented by its commissioner, had violated the immigration law of the United States, the intent of the national law should be considered rather than the mere letter of the law in rendering a decision on this matter.

The opinion is rendered as follows:

"The plan pursued by Commissioner Watson, as it is shown to have been carried out, does not involve a violation of the immigration laws of the United States prohibiting the importation of contract laborers and . . . there has been no misapplication of the exemption in favor of States, Territories, and the District of Columbia, contained in section six of the Act of March 3, 1903. . . . And it is proper to add that this opinion is based altogether upon the facts of the particular case as disclosed by the record referred to at the outset. It is obvious that very different questions should arise if the facts were that Commissioner Watson, instead of acting independently and as the representative of the State in behalf of the general body of its citizens and of its industries as a whole, acted in reality only under color of State authority and in fact as the agent of particular persons, firms, or interests; that the contributions made by private persons toward the expenses of the Department of Immigration, instead of being merely added to the general fund appropriated by the State, to be expended at the sole discretion of State officials, were used to assist in the immigration of foreign laborers to perform labor for the particular persons who so contributed; that Commissioner Watson, instead of being wholly free to act for the benefit of the State at large, was actually under the control of special interests and bound to act as they should direct; or that the immigrants themselves, instead of being entirely at liberty to accept or reject any employment provided for them, were coerced into working for particular employers. Such cir-

cumstances, and others which readily suggest themselves, would materially alter the complexion of the case, and are not, therefore, to be considered as covered by this opinion."

Under date of March 20, 1907, the Attorney-General of the United States, at the request of President Roosevelt, submitted his opinions on certain matters relating to assisted immigration, which had been referred to the President by the Governor of South Carolina. Without giving in detail the questions and the citations in support of the opinions rendered by the Attorney-General, we present the following digest of his reply to the President.

(1) It is lawful for a State to advertise its inducements to immigration, and to state, as part of such advertisement, the scale of wages generally prevailing within its territory provided that such advertisements be limited to setting forth the inducements offered to immigrants by conditions prevailing within the State, leaving the said immigrants to draw their own conclusions from such advertisements as to the advisability of coming to the said State. The status of immigrants thus induced to come would be the same as the status of any other aliens lawfully admitted.

(2) The prepayment of the immigrant's passage by a State which had advertised its inducements and scale of wages is lawful, provided no contract, express or implied, is entered into between the alien and the officers of the State, or with any other person, and provided such alien, upon arrival, is left free to choose employment in all respects as if he had paid his passage with his own funds and had come entirely independent of the representatives of the State. The introduction of the immigrants under these circumstances would be lawful, and their status would be the same as that of any other aliens lawfully admitted to this country.

(3) A State acting as such, may, through its officers, accept contributions to the fund appropriated for the support of its immigration department, provided such funds are contributed free from any contract or reciprocal agreement. With such funds a State may advertise its inducements and scale of wages and prepay the passage of aliens attracted by such advertisement, provided the advertisements are such as could be lawfully published by private persons.

(4) The opinions above rendered would necessarily be different in two particulars after the taking effect on July 1, 1907, of the act approved February 20, 1907. In the first place, aliens solicited or induced to migrate by reason of offers, or promises, even when there is no contract of employment will be excluded after this act takes effect. At present, although their importation is unlawful and subjects the parties responsible for it to punishment, the aliens themselves are allowed to enter. Secondly, the person whose passage money is paid by another must be prepared to show, not merely that he does not come within any of the categories of

immigrants to be excluded, but also that his passage was not paid by a corporation, an association, a society, a municipality, or a foreign government; and this provision against such payment by any of the foreign agencies mentioned is effective whether the payment be made directly or indirectly.

While, therefore, the payment of the passage money of such immigrants by a State with its public funds is not prohibited, its payment with funds contributed by any society or association renders the immigrant liable to exclusion, although the payment may be made through the agency of the State or its officers, and although the immigrant would be otherwise entitled to admission. The same prohibition, however, does not extend to the payment of the passage money by individuals, whether directly or through the agency of a State; provided that their action is, and is satisfactorily shown to be, in good faith individual and is not attended by such combination or concert of action as would make it substantially the act of an association or society.

#### **A Cure for the Absent and Tardy Habit.**

A novel method of curing the absent and tardy habit, manifested too commonly by employees, has been adopted by a large industrial establishment in New England. The company has offered to pay to each employee on June 1 a premium of two per cent of all wages earned from January 1, provided that the employee shall not have been absent, except on account of sickness, for more than six days during the period of six months. The advantages derived from constant, faithful service would undoubtedly justify the payment of such premiums in many large industrial establishments. — *The Iron Age*, January 10, 1907.

#### **Inheritance and Income Tax.**

So closely do some of the governors follow even the suggestions of the President that they have taken up the subject of inheritance and income taxes, without waiting for National agitation to pave the way. While Governor Hughes has not touched on either of the subjects in his message, State commissions in New York are at present examining the proposal of an inheritance tax. Governor Guild, of Massachusetts, advocates that the present tax on collateral inheritances be extended to a graduated tax on direct inheritances. He remarks that it has "worked no hardships in the States where it is now a law," and advocacy of it for several years has met less opposition than indifference. Along the line of taxation the equalization of taxation in New Jersey and a new system in Delaware are commented on, while in Missouri the governor says that a commission is about to report on a new system of taxation "for the State to derive its revenues through taxation on the subjects of taxation

other than by a levy of a general property tax." The only governor who flatly advocates an income tax is Governor Davidson, of Wisconsin, who urges on the Legislature "the importance of a Constitutional amendment providing for an income tax. Such a tax is unsurpassed as a leveller of the public burden." He also urges the inheritance tax. — *Charities and the Commons, January 26, 1907.*

#### Labor Reforms.

In the matter of labor reforms the States seem slowly to be awakening. Governor Hughes recommends that the labor department should be put on a better footing and "provision should be made to increase the efficiency of the department by thoroughly equipping it for its work." More inspectors, specialized work, and graded positions and salaries are also recommended. Governor Pennypacker, of Pennsylvania, remarks that every factory "within our laws" was inspected two to four times during the year, and takes as a good sign the "lessened bulk" of the report. Governor Guild, of Massachusetts, intimates that "the increasing demands for investigation render the Bureau of Statistics of Labor a constant and properly increasing source of expense." He also intimates that the appropriation for the new free employment bureau is quite inadequate. The Lynn and Brockton boiler explosions suggest to him that the inspection of steam boilers no longer be left to insurance companies alone as it now is when boilers are insured, the State inspectors, in such instances, being prohibited from inspecting them. Governor Woodruff, of Connecticut, urges a committee to report on a practical employers' liability act, the consolidation of the factory inspection and labor bureau as in New York, and a woman factory inspector. Governor Folk says the Department of Labor, Mines, Factory, and Beer Inspection in his State have been well managed. — *Charities and the Commons, January 26, 1907.*

#### Specializing Textile Schools.

In a report on textile education, Mr. C. Armitage, head of the textile department of the Huddersfield Technical College, England, strongly favors specializing the work of English textile schools by confining each school to one branch of the industry, thus — Manchester: Cotton; Leeds: Wool and mixed goods; Bradford: Dress goods; Huddersfield: Worsted, vestings, and Trouserings; Halifax: Carpets; Belfast: Linen; and Dundee: Jute.

This division is based on the principle that the specializing school should be located in the center of that branch of industry to instruction in which the school is devoted. The advantages of such location are obvious. It places the special instruction within the reach of the greatest number who need that kind of instruction. This is of benefit to day students

as well as to night students, but especially to the latter. It gives the advantages of quick and easy consultation with manufacturers and operatives engaged in the same branch of manufacturing, and enables each school to be supervised by practical manufacturers in that branch to which it is devoted. Furthermore, the adoption of this method of specialization would result in less waste of money and less loss of efficiency than results through the establishment of large schools, each attempting to cover the whole textile field.

This report by Mr. Armitage is of special interest in this country because it has been written since his recent visit to the United States, at which time he made a close study of American textile schools. — *Textile World Record.*

#### Scarcity of Labor in Hawaii.

Politically, commercially, and strategically, Hawaii is of importance to the United States, and its importance will be greatly increased with the opening of the Panama Canal. At the present time its most important industry is that of sugar cane cultivation and the production of sugar. The Territory needs a diversification of industries, and toward this end concerted efforts are being made to raise tropical fruits, coffee, tobacco, and sisal. The production of rubber has been tried with some success, and forestry work also promises favorable results. The crying need of the Territory, however, is for more labor.

In sugar cane cultivation one of the greatest difficulties from the beginning has been the inability to secure sufficient labor. Twenty-five years ago the planters organized under the name of the Planters' Labor and Supply Company for the purpose of securing needed help, but the same scarcity of labor still exists.

Since the annexation of the Territory to the United States the importation of contract labor has been prohibited under the alien labor laws; accordingly the immigration, consisting principally of Japanese, has been voluntary and largely transient. Recently it has been construed that the contract labor laws do not apply to the Territorial Government, and attempts are now being made to import contract labor. The importation of several hundred Molokans (a Russian sect) proved a failure. Portuguese are among the steadiest and most industrious of the immigrants, and their coming to the island is being encouraged by an agent in the Azores. The Japanese make good laborers and are apt and intelligent, but are, as a rule, ambitious and restless and rather given to strikes. They tend to drift into the higher classes of labor about the plantation, and leave in large numbers for the more remunerative work on the coast. The plantation owners are strongly in favor of Chinese, who are best suited for work in the cane and rice fields, because of their similar native en-

vironment. Chinese coolies are steady, law-abiding, efficient plantation laborers, and are content to work for small wages. As there is practically no American labor in the sugar-cane and rice fields to be affected by their competition, and as they can readily be imported, these facts are being strongly urged by plantation owners and others as reasons for a future modification of our Chinese Exclusion Act. Efforts are being made to retain a larger proportion of the Japanese and other immigrants who are transient by making possible the purchase of homesteads by individual laborers. The ownership of immense tracts by large corporations, which have refused to sell land to tenants for homesteads, has been one cause of unrest. Some form of profit-sharing would also tend to promote more interest on the part of the laborer in his work, and thus a better class of laborers would be retained.—*Daily Consular and Trade Reports No. 2689.*

#### The Canada Year Book, 1905.

The first volume of the Second Series of the Canada Year Book, which is similar in nature to the abstract of the twelfth Census of the United States, has recently been issued by the Canadian Census and Statistics Office. In addition to tables compiled from the Canadian Census reports, it contains also tables compiled from department reports, short notes of "Events of the Year," and records of Cabinet ministers, Governors-General, and Lieutenant Governors. Material of a public or official character only is presented. The statistics so far as practicable are presented in comparative form for the years since the union of the provinces, but where the details would be too voluminous the material is condensed or given for a shorter period.

The tables compiled from Census reports pertain to population, population and representation, agriculture, forestry, mines and manufactures; those compiled from departmental reports pertain to trade and commerce, public accounts, inland revenue, banks and banking, post-office, insurance, loan companies and building societies, telegraphs, railways, canals, marine, fisheries, militia, Dominion lands, immigration, patents of invention, copyrights, trade marks, etc., offences and crimes, and penitentiaries.

This small volume, of about 350 pages, serves as a most useful compendium of Canadian official information and is, as it is meant to be, "a handy book for the pocket or desk."

#### English Watch Trade.

The story of the English watch trade has been, for some years past, a doleful one, and the large capital embarked in an attempt to oust foreign-made watches has not been conspicuously successful. Efforts have been made by those concerned to supply not only the home market, but the colonies and some foreign

countries as well. In England, as well as elsewhere, either American or Swiss competitors, sometimes both, have to be met.

The great bulk of the watches made at Coventry and Prescot are sold in the United Kingdom. The English cheap watch does not find a sufficient market, and that is the crux of the situation in the home trade. The hand-made watch has largely passed away. The manufacture of watches calls for the exercise of much skill, and its extension at home is very desirable, but the unsatisfactory wages earned by workers are driving them out of the trade. There remains the question whether, by a scheme of amalgamation on the part of all the English business, foreign competition could not be successfully faced, and that is now being discussed.—*Daily Consular and Trade Reports No. 2788.*

#### Higher Prices in Germany.

German manufacturers are increasing the prices of their products. Among the articles cited as being affected by the movement are cotton textiles, knit wear, carpets, silk goods for neckwear, cutlery, and steel ware, table glassware, and copper plate and other copper products. These are but a few items from the long list. Higher cost of raw materials and of labor are the principal reasons assigned for the advances. A number of German manufacturers have opened branch works in Austria in consequence of the unfavorable action of the new commercial treaties, which will not allow them to export their products at a profit.—*Daily Consular and Trade Reports No. 2804.*

#### A Novel Industry.

The introduction of electric railways into Alpine districts has been the means of establishing a new and somewhat strange industry, namely, the quarrying of glacier ice for distribution in large cities. Glacier ice, which is perfectly pure and transparent, and which has many qualities which are greatly appreciated by consumers, commands a higher value than the usual kind obtained from the surface of frozen ponds or lakes. The ice is blasted from the glaciers, often in large blocks, and sent down the mountain sides on ice slides or V-shaped troughs. A singular feature in connection with the preparation of the ice for the market is that it has been found necessary to store it for some days in special warehouses, formed of a double thickness of boarding with a stratum of sawdust interposed, in order to remove a coating of frosted or nontransparent ice which tends to form on the surface of each block as it leaves the glacier.—*Daily Consular and Trade Reports No. 2788.*

#### Hours of Labor in State Railway Workshops in Saxony.

On August 20, 1906, the hours of labor of the operatives in the State Railway Workshops

of Saxony were reduced to nine per day. Previous to the reduction the working day was one of 10 hours, with intervals for refreshment in the morning and afternoon. Since the reduction, however, an interval of twenty minutes is allowed for breakfast, but this time is not included in the nine hours. The total number of workpeople affected by the reduction in hours is 4,300.

Simultaneously with the alteration in hours, various increases in wages were given to operatives employed at time-rates, but it is stated that these increases were granted, not on account of the introduction of the nine-hour day, but because the time-rates no longer bore a proper relation to those for piece-work, and competent workpeople could not be obtained at the old time-rates. No advances in wages were granted to piece-workers, and by far the greater proportion of the work is paid for as piece-work. — *Board of Trade Labour Gazette, London, Eng.*

#### **Living Conditions in Italy.**

The cost of living in Milan is as great, on an average, as the cost of living of the same kind would be in the United States.

A family living in Milan, about as a family of similar size and position would live in Boston, must pay more for its subsistence and comforts than the American family pays. Articles of food are nearly always as high-priced as in the United States, and not infrequently more so.

Additional miscellaneous expenses, such as for clothing, traveling expenses, entertainments, medical attendance, and reading matter are not less than they are in the United States, when taken as a whole, and some of them are much more. A greater number of servants are required, and considerable sums must be allowed in tips each year.

The population of the district has little knowledge of or capacity for the pleasure seeking that has become so marked a feature of every great American city. They are slow-going, sober, and intensely industrious. They are inclined to plod rather than to run. Except the race courses and the theatres, Milan has no sort of "popular" resorts to which the people can go at the end of a day's work or on a Sunday. As enterprising speculators in public diversions encourage them to indulge in these things there will come a demand for shorter hours. The hours of labor for women and children are already the subject of wise legislation, and further improvements in this direction are now under discussion. Day-and-night work is being discouraged. There is a strong new sentiment against going outside of Italy for anything which can be produced there.

In view of the increased cost of living, the Milan city government is pushing its plan for the establishment of groups of workingmen's

houses. Several groups of these are now in use in the city proper, and plans are developing for the most extensive experiment of the kind yet attempted. An entire suburban village has been condemned and is to be rebuilt as a model village, with both cottages and apartments for workingmen and their families. This village will be built around a "civic center" in which will be placed the hospital, public markets, entertainment buildings, washhouses, and baths. — *Daily Consular and Trade Reports No. 2807.*

#### **Agricultural Labor Conditions in Italy.**

It is said that there have been continual though not open disputes between the planters, in Italy, and their laborers, who are asking for shorter hours and more pay. During 1906 many laborers, being attracted by the better wages and more comfortable conditions offered by the manufacturing interests, deserted the plantations. This caused a temporary rise in wages, and it is said that nearly double pay was offered in order to get a sufficient number of laborers to harvest the last crop. The workers asked for a day of from six to seven hours. This was avoided by a compromise which carried the matter over the harvest season, but the outlook for 1907 is not good. It is also reported that a suggestion has been seriously made regarding Italian capital in South America entering the rice trade there, utilizing immigrant labor from Italy and exporting back to the home markets. The whole case depends on the labor question, which is the essential and determining factor in every phase of Italian life of the present day. — *Daily Consular and Trade Reports No. 2812.*

#### **Health Conditions in Factories.**

The Massachusetts State Board of Health, as directed by Chapter 59, Resolves of 1905, continued to investigate the conditions affecting the health or safety of employees in factories, workshops, and other places of employment in the Commonwealth. Many establishments were found to be supplied with satisfactory safeguards to health, while in others such was not the case. For this reason the Board recommended that laws be passed to require "that it be the duty of the inspection department of the district police to require, so far as is reasonably practicable under the varying circumstances, as efficient protection to the health of the operatives in any occupation as is provided in that occupation where, within the Commonwealth, such protection is most efficient."

In many of the factories of the so-called dangerous trades conditions were satisfactory. In the emery and corundum, sandpaper and other industries it was found that more attention should be given to keeping the dust away from the mouth and nostrils of the workman. Undue quantities of dust were noted in the rag dusting, sorting, and cutting rooms of

some paper mills, and operatives here were pale and sickly; on the other hand there were mills which used similar stock without endangering the health of the workmen by such exposure to dust. In the manufacture of shoddy and of products of jute and hemp, many poorly managed establishments require improved health conditions. In machine shops and brass and iron foundries the conditions were generally found to be fairly healthful, although there were some exceptions, particularly in certain dangerous occupations. The cutlery and tool industry establishments were largely provided with hoods (for machinery) and with exhaust fans, but improvements in the apparatus for removing dust were needed. The workmen, however, did not seem to avail themselves of every means of protection nor appreciate the fact that in these industries the death rate is two or three times as high as that of adult males in the same community. Many of the cigar making establishments needed to be brought up to the standard of the more healthful shops, where good light, proper ventilation, and no expectoration was the rule. Too large a percentage of the operatives appeared unwell. In some of the rubber factories conditions could be improved.

Unsanitary conditions in the boot and shoe industry consisted principally of poor ventilation, inadequate toilet facilities, and promiscuous expectoration. Of the 373 establishments visited, 62 provided for the health and welfare of employees; in 220, the general conditions were fair; in 72, poor; and in 19, distinctly bad. Of the rooms not especially dusty, 102 were badly ventilated and 26 were overcrowded. The number of machines with means for removal of dust was 1,630; the number either unequipped or inefficiently equipped was 2,769. In 50 establishments no expectoration was noticed; in 173 there was some; in 115 considerable; and in 35 much. The health of the employees in this industry appeared to be fairly good in the larger number of establishments, but in 85 factories, or 23 per cent, a large proportion were noticeably pale and unhealthy.

In the establishments of the textile industry, employing more than one-half of the total number of textile operatives in the Commonwealth, the conditions were found to be good, and, in about one-third of this number, excellent. On the other hand, in many establishments employing a minority of the operatives, the conditions were moderately bad, and in others decidedly bad. Of the 93 establishments visited, 19 carried on their manufacture under nearly ideal conditions; 23 had good conditions; 35 had moderately bad; and 16 distinctly bad conditions.

In the supplement to this report the health conditions in the several industries and establishments in the Commonwealth were considered in detail.

#### The Rights of Parents in the Welfare of their Children during Minority.

The Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts rendered a decision in the case of Jesse M. Purinton et al. v. Mary Jamrock in the early part of April, 1907, to the effect that parents only hold their children in trust and have no absolute right in them, and that if they fail to properly care for and protect their offspring the State has the right to interfere for the happiness and welfare of the child during minority.

The plaintiff filed a petition for the adoption of Kate Jamrock, a girl ten years of age, illegitimate, whose mother was a Roman Catholic, and who was herself baptized as an infant in the Roman Catholic Church. Kate, the child, lived with her mother until she was three years and seven months old, during a part of which time her mother was aided as a pauper by the city of Chicopee.

In January or February, 1900, when she was about three years and seven months old, Kate was committed to the custody of the State Board of Charity by the Police Court of Chicopee, a court of competent jurisdiction, in which custody she has since remained. The mother had notice of the complaint which led to such commitment, attended the hearing thereon, and took no appeal from the judgment entered. The child has been supported since her commitment as stated by the Commonwealth.

Kate was placed by the Board of Charity in a family resident in Colrain, where, in the Summer of the year 1900, the petitioners first saw her. She spent seven weeks that Summer with the petitioners, and about September 1, 1901, was placed by the Board in the care of the petitioners, where she remained until after the bringing of this petition — until July 14, 1905. During her stay in Colrain Kate was a member of the Sunday School connected with the Baptist Church, which the petitioners attend. The petitioners, if they legally may, desire and prefer to bring up the child in their faith.

Upon this petition the Probate Court entered a decree that the adoption prayed for should take place. From this decree the respondent appealed to this Court, which ordered the entry of a decree affirming the decree of the Probate Court.

The case came before the Supreme Court *en banc* upon exception to rulings and refusals to rule by the Court at *nisi prius*. . . .

Justice Sheldon in rendering his decision said in part: "It is undoubtedly the general policy of the Commonwealth to secure to those of its wards who are children of tender years the right to be brought up, where this is reasonably practicable, in the religion of their parents (St. 1905, C. 464, § 1). But it is the right of the children that is protected by this statute. The rights of the parents are still regulated by the same principles as before. The mother of an illegitimate child has doubtless all the rights

of other parents. . . . But in such a case as this it is not the rights of the parent that are chiefly to be considered. The first and paramount duty is to consult the welfare of the child. The wishes of the parent as to the religious education and surroundings of the child are entitled to weight; if there is nothing to put in the balance against them, ordinarily they will be decisive. If, however, those wishes cannot be carried into effect without sacrificing what the Court sees to be for the welfare of the child, they must so far be disregarded. The Court will not itself prefer one church to another, but will act without bias for the welfare of the child under the circumstances of each case. This is the fair consensus of judicial opinion, although a difference of circumstance has caused the use of different expressions and the reaching of different results in the different cases. As was said in substance in *F. v. F.* [1902] 1 Ch. 688, the parents' religion is *prima facie* the infant's religion, and the infant should be brought up in that religion and protected against disturbing influences from persons of a different religious faith; but the infant's welfare must be first of all regarded and its requirements must be treated as paramount. . . . This child had been for over four years in the family of the petitioners; they were found to be suitable persons to have her custody and education; a strong affection had grown up between her and them; her interests will be greatly promoted by the adoption. . . .

"Nor have the parents any inherent right of property in their minor child of which they can in no way be deprived without their consent. They are the natural guardians of their child entitled to its custody, with the right to appropriate its earnings, and may recover damages for any interferences with their rights by a wrongdoer. . . . But this right is not an absolute and uncontrollable one. It will not be enforced to the detriment or destruction of the happiness and well being of the child. . . . As the child owes allegiance to the government of the country of its birth, so it is entitled to the protection of that government, which must consult its welfare, comfort, and interests, in regulating its custody during its minority. . . . The right of the parents is not an absolute right of property, but is in the nature of a trust reposed in them, and is subject to their correlative duty to care for and protect the child; and the law secures their right only so long as they shall discharge their obligation. . . .

"Nor has the mother been discriminated against by reason of her poverty. It appears that she was employed in a cotton mill, and there is nothing to overcome the presumption that she was able to support her child. The custody of her child was taken from her by reason of her misconduct; she has acquiesced in this; and for several years has suffered it to be supported as a pauper by the Commonwealth. Under these circumstances, the stat-

ute may properly provide that her consent to its adoption shall not be necessary.

"We have treated the questions arising upon these exceptions as if the effect of this decree of adoption would be to entitle the petitioners at once to the custody and control of the child. But in this case she is still in the custody of the State Board of Charity and apparently will so remain until she shall come of age or that Board shall consider the object of the commitment accomplished."

#### Strikes in Europe.

The statistics for European labor movements show that during the month of December, 1906, in the three chief manufacturing countries of Europe — France, Germany, and the United Kingdom — 80 strikes began. This condition of affairs shows a distinct improvement on the number of strikes begun in the preceding month of November, viz., 104, and those of December, 1905, viz., 87. The number of participants in strikes amounted in December, 1906, in France and the United Kingdom to 8,516, compared with 24,578 in November, 1906, and with 15,062 in December, 1905. In France the diminution of strikes was more marked than elsewhere. In December, 1905, the number of strikers was 11,871; in December, 1906, almost exactly a third of that figure. Most of these were in textile branches. British miners and textile operatives formed the bulk of the strikers.

The nature of the strikers' demands is an eloquent testimony to the generally prosperous condition of manufacture. Not a single strike was organized in protest against a reduction in wages, while 25 strikes were based on a demand for increased pay. The outcome of the strikes was less satisfactory than usual to the workers. In nine cases they were fully successful; in 12 cases work was resumed without alteration of existing conditions. Compromises on both sides brought about settlement in 24 instances. — *Daily Consular and Trade Reports No. 2814, March 11, 1907.*

#### The German Inheritance Tax.

The German imperial tax on inheritances (gifts between the living being subject to the same rules) was authorized by an elaborate statute of June 3, 1906, and by administrative provisions of the Bundesrat, June 16, 1906. It is a tax on the distributive shares going to collateral heirs and to forbears. The tax varies from a minimum of four per cent to a maximum of 25 per cent, shares of less than 500 marks (one mark = 23.8 cents) and all shares falling to husband, wife, child, or grandchild being exempt from taxation. On inheritances of less than 20,000 marks the rate is four, six, eight, or 10 per cent according to the degree of relationship.

This new departure in German finance is viewed with apprehension in some quarters as

giving to a Reichstag elected by popular suffrage a tool for the repression of saving and the weakening of the institution of property. Possibly as a result of this feeling there is still left to the States the whole field of taxation of direct inheritances, and the right to impose such additional rates as it wishes on the objects included within this law.—*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, February, 1907.

#### BELGIAN TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.

The prosperity of Belgium, which is advancing rapidly from year to year, is undoubtedly due to technical teaching. These schools, created and maintained by the Government, are under the general supervision of the Department of Commerce and Labor, which appoints a board of general supervisors whose duty it is to see that the teaching is of a high standard as well as to oversee the sanitary and hygienic arrangements of the various schools. Belgium enjoys the distinction of being the first country to organize domestic training schools, the first being established in 1889.

This system comprises, in its practical curriculum, maintenance and cleanliness of dwellings, furnishings, laundry work, cutting, fitting, making, and repairing of ordinary garments, cooking, and in the rural districts gardening, dairy work, and the care of poultry. The theoretical teaching consists of lectures on hygiene, domestic economy, care of children, and sick nursing. This particular training is intended for the children of the working classes, the object being to prepare the pupil for the economical management of a house as a housewife or a servant. In the more advanced schools, termed professional domestic schools, the theoretical and practical teaching are equal, and include designing, cutting, dressmaking, millinery, artificial-flower making, lace making, embroidery, china painting, commercial bookkeeping, stenography, typewriting, domestic economy, etc. The practical effect of this system not only enables a girl to gain a livelihood by the application of her knowledge in the various branches taught, but is particularly emphasized in housekeeping and the higher service. While the Government has legislated against the employment of women under ground, they assume important places in the large manufactures, and work side by side with the male employee, demonstrating equal ability. Many of the large workshops give technical lectures and demonstrations expressly for the female employee who is unable to take advantage of the technical course offered to boys.

In training boys for professional and industrial work, attention is given to the demands of the various localities. The various schools are as follows: Mechanical and electrical engineering, iron and steel, wood cutting, carpentering, joining, plumbing, watch making,

jewelry making, firearm manufacturing, book-binding and gilding, painting, designing, engraving, spinning and weaving, dyeing, tanning, basket making, lace making, upholstery, tailoring, wood sculpture, telegraphy, music, etc. While the practical work of these institutions is the same as in the actual workshops, the theoretical training is intended to meet what the workshop does not supply.

Apart from the Government technical training schools, private institutions are inaugurated and are partly maintained by private subscription. These, however, draw liberally from the Government.

Liege since the fourteenth century has been universally known for its manufacture of firearms. It has kept pace with the various evolutions in this industry. The well-known School of Arms in Liege turns into the local workshops yearly young men already fitted to apply themselves practically to any branch of the firearm trade. One of the practical requirements before graduation is that the pupil must not only be able to make any of the various parts of a gun, but must assemble these parts with facility. In theory and practice they are as perfect as age will permit, and yet they must enter the factory in the capacity of an apprentice and await the recognition of the foreman. This system of education forms a capability that is sought for by many countries, and the workmen graduating from the School of Arms can readily find work either at home or abroad.

Many practical gunsmiths have attached to their homes a small workshop, where during their spare hours they work under the piece-work system and are therefore enabled to earn extra compensation. This class of labor is always in demand, and at no time need the firearm workmen be out of employment.

The School of Textiles is an institution whose teaching has brought the manufacture of cloth and all branches attached to that Belgian industry to a high state of perfection. Year after year the cloth manufacturers in other countries apply to this school for a competent man to serve them as foreman or superintendent. At home the graduates of this institution are immediately taken up by the local manufacturers and their future is guaranteed. The Government, to encourage application, gives yearly a money prize to pupils having a certain percentage in their studies, which is called a "traveling purse," and is intended to meet the expenses of a journey abroad. The same conditions prevail at the School of Mining and all the other schools. The Government selects graduates from the various technical schools to act as heads of departments as well as of the various other work under the Government.

Technical education in Belgium has for its object to assist the employer and employee alike. The present condition of both is highly

satisfactory, and the future points to a substantial advancement. The country is tranquil, the workingmen are increasing their savings yearly, a spirit of contentment is everywhere manifest, which condition guarantees uninterrupted labor. Lockouts and strikes are rare, while the question of the unemployed is absent. All workmen are more or

less skilled, and their labor wins a compensation satisfactory to them. The continued industrial and commercial advancement of Belgium stimulates the demand for labor; and the labor, thanks to technical education in all branches, readily meets these demands. *Daily Consular and Trade Reports No. 2815.*

## STATISTICAL ABSTRACTS.

### Cotton Distribution — United States.

Information relative to the supply and distribution of cotton from the United States during the year ending August 31, 1906, is given in Census Bulletin No. 63 published by the United States Department of Commerce and Labor.

From this Bulletin we have obtained the following table showing for the 10 principal cotton manufacturing States the amount of cotton consumed during the year together with the number of spindles in operation and the number of establishments for each State:

STATE.	Number of Establishments	Cotton Consumed (Bales)	Active Spindles
Massachusetts, .	210	1,234,182	8,790,793
North Carolina, .	251	675,332	2,341,792
South Carolina, .	141	674,588	3,345,075
Georgia, .	138	513,814	1,546,998
New Hampshire, .	46	283,853	1,296,445
Alabama, .	68	244,058	851,986
Rhode Island, .	76	217,118	2,130,958
New York, .	112	176,739	802,254
Maine, .	34	163,297	912,593
Connecticut, .	86	148,692	1,174,527
All other States, .	570	577,806	2,056,675
TOTALS, .	1,732	4,909,479	25,250,096

Massachusetts, though not first in the number of establishments, far outranks all other States in the quantity of cotton consumed and the number of spindles in operation in its mills. The quantity of cotton consumed was 25.1 per cent of the total cotton consumed in the country, while the quantity consumed in the two Carolinas, with 392 establishments, or 182 more than in Massachusetts, was but 27.5 per cent of the total, the number of its active spindles being 34.8 per cent of the total number for the United States, while South Carolina ranked second with 13.2 per cent of the total and North Carolina third, with 9.3 per cent. The 12 Southern (cotton growing) States together had only 204,075 more spindles in operation than Massachusetts, while the five other New England States and New York combined had 2,371,752 fewer active spindles than Massachusetts.

### Manufactures in Two Groups of States — 1905.

The following data have been selected from the returns of the Federal Census of Manufactures, 1905, in order to exhibit a summary of the condition of manufacturing industries in two groups of States: Group I includes Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas, and Group II includes California, Oregon, and Washington.

#### *Manufactures of Louisiana — 1905.*

CLASSIFICATION.	1905	Percentages of Increase in 1905 over 1900
Establishments, . . .	2,091	14.5
Capital, . . .	\$150,810,608	49.5
Salaried officials, clerks, etc., . . .	5,977	67.1
Salaries, . . .	\$6,044,404	106.0
Wage-earners, average number, . . .	55,859	36.6
Total wages, . . .	\$25,315,750	71.9
Men 16 years and over, . . .	49,942	43.7
Wages, . . .	\$24,141,298	77.9
Women 16 years and over, . . .	4,604	18.1
Wages, . . .	\$966,872	15.2
Children under 16 years, . . .	1,313	18.7
Wages, . . .	\$207,580	53.6
Miscellaneous expenses, . . .	\$16,047,105	98.1
Cost of materials used, . . .	\$117,035,305	55.2
Value of products, . . .	\$186,379,592	67.3

<sup>1</sup> Decrease.

#### *Manufactures of Mississippi — 1905.*

CLASSIFICATION.	1905	Percentages of Increase in 1905 over 1900
Establishments, . . .	1,520	17.5
Capital, . . .	\$50,256,309	121.3
Salaried officials, clerks, etc., . . .	2,688	113.3
Salaries, . . .	\$2,598,346	137.7
Wage-earners, average number, . . .	38,690	44.4
Total wages, . . .	\$14,819,034	87.4
Men 16 years and over, . . .	35,364	45.3
Wages, . . .	\$14,167,965	87.7

*Manufactures of Mississippi — 1905*  
— Concluded.

CLASSIFICATION.	1905	Percentages of Increase in 1905 over 1900
Total wages — Con.		
Women 16 years and over, . . .	2,054	41.9
Wages, . . .	\$464,599	90.6
Children under 16 years, . . .	1272	25.3
Wages, . . .	\$186,470	56.0
Miscellaneous expenses, . . .	\$5,855,767	205.8
Cost of materials used, . . .	\$25,800,885	56.0
Value of products, . . .	\$57,451,445	70.4

*Manufactures of Texas — 1905.*

CLASSIFICATION.	1905	Percentages of Increase in 1905 over 1900
Establishments, . . .	3,158	1.6
Capital, . . .	\$115,664,871	81.7
Salaried officials, clerks, etc., . . .	5,753	101.1
Salaries, . . .	\$6,117,709	109.6
Wage-earners, average number, . . .	49,066	27.1
Total wages, . . .	\$24,468,942	44.7
Men 16 years and over, . . .	45,766	27.1
Wages, . . .	\$23,731,548	44.9
Women 16 years and over, . . .	2,479	46.4
Wages, . . .	\$596,169	47.1
Children under 16 years, . . .	821	<sup>1</sup> 10.4
Wages, . . .	\$141,225	10.3
Miscellaneous expenses, . . .	\$12,215,472	124.0
Cost of materials used, . . .	\$91,603,030	68.4
Value of products, . . .	\$150,523,389	62.0

<sup>1</sup> Decrease.

The increase in the value of products shown in the 1905 census over that in 1900 was 67.3 per cent in Louisiana, 70.4 per cent in Mississippi, and 62.0 in Texas.

The largest industry in Louisiana, based upon the value of products, was the refining of sugar and molasses, of which the value was \$73,786,659, forming 39.6 per cent of the total manufactured product in the State. In this industry Louisiana held second rank in the United States, both at this census and in the 1900 census. In New Orleans the total value of all manufactured products was \$84,604,006, or 45.4 per cent of the total manufactured product of the State. The total value of manufactured products in Shreveport was \$2,921,923, and Baton Rouge, \$1,383,061.

In Mississippi the largest industry, based upon the value of products, was the manufacture of lumber and timber products, of which the value was \$24,035,539. In the city of Meridian the total value of manufactured products was \$3,267,600; in Vicksburg, \$1,887,924; and in Natches, \$819,729.

The largest industry in Texas, based upon

the value of products, was the manufacture of flour and grist mill products, of which the value was \$22,083,136. In the cities, Dallas produced manufactured goods to the value of \$15,627,668; Houston, \$13,546,019; San Antonio, \$7,402,262; Fort Worth, \$5,668,391; and Galveston, \$2,996,654.

*Manufactures of California — 1905.*

CLASSIFICATION.	1905	Percentages of Increase in 1905 over 1900
Establishments, . . .	6,839	36.9
Capital, . . .	\$282,647,201	61.1
Salaried officials, clerks, etc., . . .	12,283	78.6
Salaries, . . .	\$14,399,157	92.1
Wage-earners, average number, . . .	100,355	30.0
Total wages, . . .	\$64,656,686	62.1
Men 16 years and over, . . .	84,688	37.5
Wages, . . .	\$59,576,395	66.0
Women 16 years and over, . . .	14,084	2.0
Wages, . . .	\$4,709,160	28.5
Children under 16 years, . . .	1,583	<sup>1</sup> 14.1
Wages, . . .	\$371,131	13.7
Miscellaneous expenses, . . .	\$27,145,650	106.8
Cost of materials used, . . .	\$215,726,414	30.8
Value of products, . . .	\$367,218,494	42.7

<sup>1</sup> Decrease.

*Manufactures of Oregon — 1905.*

CLASSIFICATION.	1905	Percentages of Increase in 1905 over 1900
Establishments, . . .	1,602	13.9
Capital, . . .	\$44,023,548	55.2
Salaried officials, clerks, etc., . . .	1,769	54.8
Salaries, . . .	\$2,132,514	74.5
Wage-earners, . . .	18,523	28.1
Total wages, . . .	\$11,443,512	67.7
Men 16 years and over, . . .	16,843	28.9
Wages, . . .	\$10,950,459	68.7
Women 16 years and over, . . .	1,474	32.1
Wages, . . .	\$450,150	59.0
Children under 16 years, . . .	206	<sup>1</sup> 25.4
Wages, . . .	\$42,903	<sup>1</sup> 8.7
Miscellaneous expenses, . . .	\$4,185,595	111.5
Cost of materials used, . . .	\$30,596,763	47.2
Value of products, . . .	\$55,525,123	51.7

<sup>1</sup> Decrease.

*Manufactures of Washington — 1905.*

CLASSIFICATION.	1905	Percentages of Increase in 1905 over 1900
Establishments, . . .	2,751	42.8
Capital, . . .	\$96,952,621	133.2
Salaried officials, clerks, etc., . . .	3,658	73.9
Salaries, . . .	\$4,092,919	98.3
Wage-earners, . . .	45,199	43.4

*Manufactures of Washington — 1905*

— Concluded.

CLASSIFICATION.	1905	Percentages of Increase in 1905 over 1900
Total wages, . . .	\$30,087,287	76.3
Men 16 years and over, . . .	43,782	42.9
Wages, . . .	\$29,605,475	75.9
Women 16 years and over, . . .	1,304	106.7
Wages, . . .	\$455,789	143.9
Children under 16 years, . . .	113	155.0
Wages, . . .	\$26,023	148.8
Miscellaneous expenses, . . .	\$11,034,750	180.9
Cost of materials used, . . .	\$66,166,165	72.9
Value of products, . . .	\$128,821,667	81.9

↑ Decrease.

The increase in the value of products shown in the 1905 census over that in 1900 was 42.7 per cent in California, 51.7 per cent in Oregon, and 81.9 per cent in Washington. The largest industry in California, based upon value of products, was canning and preserving fruits and vegetables, of which the value was \$23,809,988. In this industry California led every State in the Union by a very large margin. In the city of San Francisco the total value of products was \$137,788,233, forming 37.5 per cent of the total for the State. In Los Angeles the total value of products was \$34,814,475; in Sacramento, \$10,319,416; in Fresno, \$9,849,001; and in Oakland, \$9,072,539.

In Oregon the largest industry, based upon the value of products, was the manufacturing of lumber and timber products, of which the value was \$12,483,908. In Portland the total value of products was \$28,651,321, and in Astoria \$3,092,628.

Based upon the value of products, the largest industry in Washington was, as in Oregon, the manufacturing of lumber and timber products, of which the value was \$49,572,512. In the cities the value of all manufactured products was: Seattle, \$25,406,574; Tacoma, \$22,803,169; and Spokane, \$8,830,852.

*Manufactures of West Virginia.*

The Bureau of Labor of West Virginia in its ninth biennial report for 1905-06, says that 835 manufacturing establishments, representing 67 different industries, report \$38,362,309 capital invested, with a total product of \$73,496,465. The average number of persons employed was 44,114; the average number of days in operation, 263.5; average daily hours of labor, 9.7; amount paid in wages, \$20,786,455. There were 113 establishments that reported an increase in wage rates and three that reported a decrease.

The lumber industry showed the largest number of establishments (207); the iron, steel, and tin plate industry reported the

largest amount of capital invested (\$4,680,483), as well as the largest total value of product (\$16,043,083), the largest number of employees (7,462), and the largest amount paid in wages (\$4,241,267). The number of new industries established during 1904-05 was 482, employing 10,133 people, paying \$426,472 in wages, and having \$22,856,039 capital invested.

**Education in Massachusetts, 1905.**

The total expenditure for public education in Massachusetts for the year 1904-05, as reported by the State Board of Education, was \$18,131,529.01, an increase of \$1,694,860.66 over the preceding year. The amount paid for teachers' salaries was \$9,578,572.01, an increase of \$380,663.61, and for buildings, alterations, and repairs there was expended \$4,944,876.52, an increase of \$1,291,443.80 as compared with the preceding year. The average cost of education per pupil increased from \$38.10 in 1903-04 to \$41.01 in 1904-05. The percentage of local State valuation (May 1, 1904) raised by local taxation and expended for public school purposes was \$5.38 per \$1,000, an increase over 1903 of \$0.35 per \$1,000.

The average membership of pupils in all the public schools was 442,140, and the percentage of attendance based on the average membership was 91. The number of teachers required in the public schools was 13,849, an increase of 373. The average salary of male teachers per month was \$149.05, an increase of \$3.57, and of female teachers was \$57.22, an increase of \$1.85 over the previous year.

**Lowell Textile School.**

The annual report of the trustees of the Lowell Textile School to the Legislature shows that during the calendar year 1906 the cost of maintenance of the school was \$48,984.43. For this purpose, \$29,000 was received from the Commonwealth, \$8,000 from the city of Lowell, and \$12,516.40 from tuitions, the total amount from these three sources being in excess of the cost of maintenance by \$531.97. The expenditures for new equipment and construction amounted to \$36,176.14, which was largely met by appropriations amounting to \$13,990 made by the Commonwealth during the year and by unexpended balances of earlier appropriations. Expenditures of \$18,369 were made for land, a donation of \$16,500 having been received for this purpose. At the close of the year the value of the land and buildings was \$345,637.26 and of the machinery and equipment, \$182,237.95.

On January 1, 1907, there were 708 pupils, an increase of 132 or 23 per cent over the enrolment for the previous year. Of the 708 pupils, 128 were day pupils and 580 were evening pupils. The increase in the number of day pupils was 11, or about 10 percent; the increase in the number of evening pupils was 150, or 35 per cent. There were six courses for day

pupils and 13 courses for evening pupils. The teaching force numbered 25, making the average number of pupils for each instructor 28. The last educational institution attended by the 580 evening pupils was as follows: Grammar schools, 232 pupils; high schools or academies, 261; colleges or universities, 12; business colleges, technical schools, or other educational institutions, 75. The evening pupils were previously occupied as follows: as clerks, 63; operatives, 52; machinists, 46; weavers, 42; students, 29; draftsmen, 21; apprentices, 15; helpers, 15; engineers, 14; loomfixers, 14; overseers, 14; second hands, 13; section hands, 13; salesmen, 10; electricians, 10; and all other occupations, 209.

#### **Bradford Durfee Textile School.**

The Bradford Durfee Textile School, at Fall River, offers three courses for day students and 14 courses for evening students. The trustees' report to the Legislature shows that for the present school year 11 day students are enrolled, the number being the same as for last year, while the evening students number 332 as against 419 in 1905-06. The financial statement shows that the school property was valued, on December 31, 1906, at \$169,377, and that the trustees received from the Commonwealth, during 1906, \$15,000; from the city of Fall River, \$5,000; and from tuition, \$1,099.

#### **New Bedford Textile School.**

The annual report to the Legislature from the trustees of the New Bedford Textile School shows an enrolment of 459 students for the Fall of 1906, the day students numbering 26 and the evening students 433, against 27 day students and 363 evening students for the preceding school year. Of the day students, seven were residents of New Bedford, while four were from other parts of Massachusetts, nine from other States of the Union, and six from China. Eight courses of instruction are offered for day students and 16 courses for evening students. During 1906 a three-story addition to the school building was erected, increasing the floor space by about 17,000 square feet. The financial statement for the year shows that the school property on January 1, 1907, including land, buildings, machinery, equipment, stock, etc., was valued at \$149,382. The trustees received from the Commonwealth, during 1906, \$18,000; from the city of New Bedford, \$7,000; and from tuition, \$3,100.

#### **\* The Safety of Savings Banks.**

The business of savings banks in the United States at the close of business on June 30, 1905, and at the end of the fiscal year 1895 may be briefly compared in the following way:

	No. of Banks	Deposits	Depositors	Average
1905	1,237	\$3,261,236,119	7,696,229	\$423.74
1895	980	1,844,357,798	4,875,519	378.31
Inc., .	257	\$1,416,878,321	2,820,710	\$45.43

These figures are an index of prosperity. They show that there are nearly 3,000,000 more persons who came to be savers of money, who became the possessors of "bank accounts" within that ten-year period.

More than that, these figures should raise, in the mind of every man and woman who considers them, certain intimate questions. If the reader be neither the owner of a bank account nor the owner of investments in other forms, they should bring humility to him. They mean that there are very nearly 8,000,000 people in the United States who have outstripped him in the race. They mean that almost one out of every ten men, women, and children in this country is wealthier, and therefore stronger, than he is.

This is a question that comes home especially to the young men and the young women who earn wages. Not one out of a thousand of these is in a position to invest for himself or herself, even if the savings from the monthly or weekly salary permitted it. The real question is whether or not to save; and, that decided, how to carry out the decision.

Granted that one lives in New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Ohio, or any other State whose laws shall be found sufficient to safeguard the depositor, the regular deposits of savings to be left to pile up their compound interest over a series of years shows quite remarkable results. A simple table showing the results from such deposits in a savings bank paying 4 per cent per annum, compounded twice a year, is as follows:

One dollar	For 5 years	10 years	20 years	40 years
Per week, Permonth,	\$293 66	\$650 147	\$1,614 366	\$5,177 1,174

Roughly speaking, this table can be indefinitely extended by doubling the amounts for two dollars, trebling them for three dollars, etc.

Such an account is a profitable investment. For the earner of small wages, or for those who cannot save any great amount out of large wages, there is no more certain method known to the world of finance by which one may become an investor.

The one question to be settled is whether or not the State laws are sufficiently strict to ensure the safety of the bank under all circumstances. — *The World's Work, November, 1906,*

**Anti-tuberculosis Dispensary.**

A royal decree, issued October 24, 1906, provides for the creation at Madrid, Spain, of a dispensary, under the patronage of the queen, to be called the Victoria Eugenia Royal Anti-tuberculosis Dispensary (*Real Dispensario antituberculoso Victoria Eugenia*). For its establishment and maintenance the sum of 25,000 pesetas (\$4,825) is appropriated, and the department in charge of the new dispensary is instructed to co-operate in all possible ways with other dispensaries, public or private, in free service for tuberculous patients, not only by giving advice but by supplying medicines and food and by taking measures to prevent the spread of the disease.

The report accompanying the decree states that the average yearly number of deaths in Spain is from 600,000 to 700,000, or about 30 for each 1,000 of the total population, and about 40,000 deaths each year result from pulmonary tuberculosis alone.—*Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales, Madrid, November, 1906.*

**Minimum Wages in Belgium.**

The cheapness of labor in Belgium is the most important factor in making the industries of the country so successful in competition with the world. This is the thing above all others that the American manufacturer must take into consideration in attempting to introduce his products into the Belgian market. It will be found, generally speaking, that only where American labor-saving machinery has replaced hand-labor has competition in this market from America been possible.

As an attempt to protect the laborer and establish something approaching a reasonable rate of wages, the town councils of Antwerp, Ghent, and Liege have authorized a minimum rate per hour to be paid to persons engaged by these municipalities in the various trades, of which 13 are shown in the annexed table:

TRADE.	Antwerp	Ghent	Liege
	Cents	Cents	Cents
Blacksmiths,	11	8	—
Boilermakers,	—	7	9
Carpenters,	9	8	8
Electricians,	—	8	10
Glassworkers,	—	—	8
Glaziers,	9	7	—
Locksmiths,	8	—	9
Masons,	9	8	8
Painters,	9	7	7
Plumbers,	9	8	8
Printers,	9	7	—
Roofers,	9	7	8
Stonecutters,	8½	—	8

**Wages and Food Prices in France.**

Considerable has been published lately in America concerning the increased cost of living and the comparative pay of labor in the United States. In some cases the writers have tried to demonstrate that it is only in the United

States that the cost of articles of daily consumption has increased to any considerable degree. Statements are also frequently made to the effect that, although the wage of the laboring classes abroad is usually lower than the wage of the same class of labor in the United States, nevertheless living abroad is so much cheaper that the laboring class is just as happy and just as prosperous as the American laborer. In demonstrating that this is not the fact, statistics will be given, as far as they have been possible to obtain, of (1) the wages paid to various labor classes in Nantes; (2) the cost of articles of food, fuel, light, etc., entering seriously into the daily consumption of laboring people; and (3) the cost of rent of rooms or apartments.

The wages paid to the various classes of organized labor in this city, which may be considered a city of average prosperity in France and Europe, are given herewith as furnished by the secretary of the Nantes Labor Exchange. It is fair to assume that the maximum pay is given to organized labor; in fact, many classes of labor not organized are paid much lower wages than are here given.

LABOR.	Wages
Adjusters of machinery.	Daily (10 hours) \$1.00 to \$1.20
Blacksmiths,	1.10 to 1.40
Blacksmiths' helpers,	.95
Bookbinders,	1.00 to 1.20
Carpenters (housework),	.95 to 1.00
Carpenters (timberworkers),	1.10 to 1.30
Dock laborers,	1.10
Chair makers (piece-work),	.80 to 1.00
Coopers (piece-work),	.90 to 1.00
Electricians (installing lighting),	1.00 to 1.40
Factory laborers,	.75 to .90
Lithographic printers,	1.40 to 1.60
Locksmiths,	.90 to 1.10
Machine tenders (labor saving),	.90 to 1.00
Masons and marble-workers,	.90 to 1.00
Molders,	1.00 to 1.30
Paperhangers, idle about four months in the year,	1.60
Painters (house),	.90 to 1.00
Pattern makers,	1.10 to 1.30
Plasterers,	1.00 to 1.20
Saw tenders (power saws),	.80 to .90
Sculptors in stone for building,	1.10 to 1.60
Shoemakers,	.70 to 1.00
Slaters and roofers,	1.10 to 1.30
Stonecutters,	1.00
Sugar refiners:	
Men,	.75 to .80
Women,	.40 to .60
Tanners and curriers,	.90 to 1.00
Type-setters,	1.30 to 1.80
Wagon makers (woodworkers),	1.00 to 1.20
Wagon painters,	1.00
Wagon smiths,	1.20 to 1.60
Wheelwrights,	.90 to 1.00
Willow and rattan workers,	.60 to 1.00
Bakers,	Weekly 6.00 to 8.40
Draftsmen (industrial),	Monthly 30.00 to 60.00
Engineers (stationary engines),	26.00 to 32.00
Hair dressers, with board and room,	5.00 to 12.00
Household service, with board and lodging:	
Women servants,	4.00 to 6.00
Women cooks (average),	6.00 to 7.00
Man servants (trained),	5.00 to 10.00

LABOR.	Wages
Railway engineers (engine drivers), . . . . .	Monthly \$36.00 to \$60.00
Railway firemen, . . . . .	24.00 to 34.00
Store employees:	
Men —	
First year after apprenticeship, . . . . .	15.00
Second year after apprenticeship, . . . . .	20.00
Possible maximum, . . . . .	30.00
Women —	
Second year after apprenticeship, . . . . .	10.00
Third year after apprenticeship, . . . . .	15.00
Possible maximum, . . . . .	25.00
Truckmen, . . . . .	18.00 to 24.00

In nearly all the foregoing trades and employments an apprenticeship of two years, without pay, must be served. Domestic labor in the rural districts is from 25 to 40 per cent less than the foregoing rates. In establishments where dressmaking and tailoring for women are done the seamstresses are paid, after two years' apprenticeship without pay, a daily wage of from 15 to 20 cents, while exceptional workers may, after a number of years, reach 50 cents; foot-machine workers, 60 cents; forewomen, \$1; women cutters and fitters, \$60 a month; men cutters, \$80 a month.

Prices of foodstuffs in Nantes for one-half kilogram (1½ pounds) run as follows in American cents:

Beef for soup, 12 to 18, sirloin, 30, and tenderloin, 45; veal, 20 to 24; pork, fresh, 18 to 22, salted, 18 to 21, sausage, 24; ham, 25, or cooked, 35; horse meat for soup, 6, steak, 16, and tenderloin, 28; lard, 16; butter, according to season, 25 to 44; cheese, common, 24, Swiss, 28, and French, 20; fish, salted, 8, herrings, salted, 16, and smoked, a dozen, 22; coffee, common quality, 35; coffee, better quality, 40 to 50; chicory, 7; sugar, common, 5½ to 6, sugar, lump, 6½ to 9; tea, 60 to 80; chocolate (cocoa and sugar), 25; prunes, dried, 25; potatoes, 1½; macaroni and similar pastes, 7 to 20; rice, 7 to 10; tapioca, 24; flour, common, 4; salt, common coarse, 3, refined for table, 4; beans, dried, 6; alimentary oils, repressed, 12; peanut, 14, and olive, 16 to 25; fowls (each), chickens, 80, turkeys, \$3 to \$4, geese, \$3 to \$4, ducks, \$1.40 to \$1.60; eggs, 18 to 40; wines, common red and white, a quart, 4 to 8.

In household necessaries kerosene, common, costs 6 and better quality 8 cents a quart; soap, common laundry, 7 cents; and candles, 9 to 10 cents a pound. Coal costs \$10 to \$12 a ton; wood, \$7.50 to \$9 a cord.

On most articles of food the municipality collects a tax upon their entering the city limits. Consequently, people living in the smaller outlying towns are enabled to purchase some of the articles for food at a little lower

price than the market price in the city. However, the mass of the laboring people live within the city limits, and consequently are not affected by this difference. These taxes, which are paid in all the larger French cities, help to defray the expenses of the municipality, and may be considered a direct tax upon all consumers of these products.

Inquiring carefully into the average price paid for rent of rooms and houses by working people here, it is learned that the average price paid for a room in apartments or lodgings occupied by the laboring class is from \$18 to \$20 a year. Thus, a laboring family occupying a three-room apartment, composed of a general living room, a bedroom, and a kitchen, pays from \$50 to \$60 a year. These rooms do not contain the usual conveniences found in American houses.

Running water is not always found in the houses, and when found must be paid for by each tenant. Where the houses are of more modern construction, and are healthful and well ventilated, the cost of rooms is greater. In late years there have been some improvements in the construction of houses for laboring people, and more modern small cottages have been constructed, which rent at from \$100 to \$160 a year. However, the average working family can not afford to pay so much for house rent, and must consequently live in the larger houses in the older quarters, where rents are cheaper, but where they are generally far from healthy, are ill-lighted, and poorly ventilated.

The average cost of clothing in general is not far, if any, below the cost of clothing in the United States. All articles of cotton are more expensive than in the United States, while articles of linen are generally cheaper. Clothing made of woolen goods may be considered somewhat cheaper, particularly considering the lower price of the finer grades of wool goods. However, a workingman can purchase a better ready-made suit of clothes in the United States for from \$10 to \$15 than he can purchase for the same amount in France. An ordinary business suit of tweed costs, when made by a local tailor, from \$20 to \$25, and an article of clothing as good and as well fitting can certainly be obtained from an American tailor at about the same price.

Taking all these facts into consideration, one may say that labor in France has not reached the degree of prosperity that labor has reached in the United States, nor has it in any way approached thereto. A great deal has been done and is being done in the way of organizing labor, and this will undoubtedly result in much good for the laboring classes. Their condition is much better than it was a few years ago, and it is tending to constant amelioration as regards wages, but when the cost of living for laborers in Europe is compared with the cost of living in the United States the fact should be taken

into consideration that the laborer of Europe does not live as well as does the laborer in the United States, nor are his requirements as many.

Many things are considered necessities to the laborer in the United States which would be luxuries to the laborer of Europe. In Europe the laborer expends much less than in America and in spite of this lives comparatively happily, because he does not know or feel the need of all that enters into the daily life of the Ameri-

can laborer. The wages do not permit of extravagance, and comparison of the condition of the laborer in France and in the United States can not be made without the conclusion being reached that the laborer in the United States lives much the better. Everything in the line of necessities for living comes high in Europe; the only commodity that is really cheap is labor. — *Daily Consular and Trade Reports No. 2804.*

## INDUSTRIAL INFORMATION.

*[This department of the Bulletin will contain information valuable to the manufacturer, merchant, and exporter, and the public generally. It is based upon the daily reports of the Bureau of Manufactures of the National Department of Commerce and Labor, as well as upon original reports filed in this Office. Those who are interested in the subject may obtain copies of the Massachusetts Labor Bulletin upon application to this Office.]*

### Trade in Mexico.

#### Musical Instruments.

Mexico may be regarded as a good market for musical instruments. No town of importance is without at least one municipal band or orchestra for public concerts. Pianos are owned in a large number of private houses; and the small musical instruments, particularly guitars, mandolins, etc., are much more common. The United States, however, is not selling to Mexico its fair share of musical instruments. Germany enjoys a distinct leadership in this line, although, apart from Germany, the United States distances all other competitors. It is particularly in pianos that Germany leads. But few organs are sold in Mexico. In the cheap grade of pianos Germany can quote prices very considerably below those of the cheap pianos of the United States, but the pianos from the United States are commonly the higher-priced kind.

Freight rates, especially when it is a question of any great haul by land, play a large part in the matter. The duty in Mexican custom houses is the same on all kinds and classes of musical instruments, and has regard only to weight and not to value. The duty is 55 cents Mexican per legal kilogram (12½ cents United States currency per pound) exclusive of crates, etc. A rare and valuable violin would therefore pay less than \$1 in duty, while a cheap cottage organ or cheap piano would pay from \$25 to \$75 gold. On the average, the duty and freight charges fully double the cost of a piano. They are sold in Mexico for from about \$125 to \$1,500 gold, and the increase in cost grows proportionately for the cities which

are farthest inland or more distant from the Rio Grande border. There is one factory in Mexico where the parts of pianos manufactured in Europe are assembled by expert workmen, but this is the only establishment that may be called a piano factory. There is no organ factory in the country.

The United States export figures for 1903–04 show total exportations of musical instruments to Mexico to the value of \$207,000 United States currency. Of this total, \$7,860 was represented by organs, 134 in number; and \$43,690 by pianos, comprising only 192 instruments, with an average value of \$227.50 each. The trade both in pianos and organs has fluctuated up and down for ten years, but these sums represent the average value during that period.

In musical instruments of all other kinds, however, exportations have grown greatly since 1900, and they amounted during 1903–04 to \$155,125. Duty and transportation, of course, add to the cost of such instruments.

The self-playing pianos and organs do not seem to have been pushed as they might have been. In Mexico City, Guadalajara, and one or two other cities, more has been done in this line (and this is true of several makes of American pianos and organs) by means of the establishment of agencies. In most parts of the country, however, these instruments are virtually unknown. In Durango there is not even a place where pianos are kept in stock, although there are several agents in town and the large general stores will take orders, besides carrying some of the smaller musical instruments. Practically the same is the case at Torreon, Gomez Palacio, and

Ciudad Lerdo, where, however, a good many pianos are owned and more are constantly being sold.

An American agent has occasionally done a good business with a line of pianos, setting them up in a temporary show room. It need not be said that pianos, whether self-playing or not, can not readily be introduced into a region where they are unknown without being shown therein. Nor is the establishment of an agency in the capital or other cities in the Southern part of the country a measure calculated to introduce new lines of instruments into the other sections. This seems to have been the chief reason why self-playing pianos and organs are little known. The people are all lovers of music, and they are also readily inclined to buy novelties in this or other lines. There has been a great sale of phonographs during the past year, and the city of Durango in particular is fairly alive with them at present. There is less market, of course, for self-playing organs and pianos, *but there should be a market*. The organ should find a special sale in the small chapels of ranch and mining towns.

There are two music dealers in Veracruz, but in all the larger towns throughout the interior there are few who make this a special business; it is generally conducted in combination with other goods. Mexico City is the central point in this country for music dealers. This is a splendid field for the sale of talking machines and self-playing pianos. It must not be supposed that the machines are unknown, but they have never been put before the public systematically. It is extremely doubtful if an old established business house could be induced to send in an order, pay for the same at the place of shipment, take all shipping and packing risks, pay duties and take chances on wrong declarations of merchandise on consular manifest, usually resulting in fines and double duties, and finally spend from four to seven days in clearing the goods from the custom house on the unsupported statement of the manufacturer in his circulars.

It has repeatedly been said that the American manufacturer who desires to cultivate trade with this country must do so in a systematic and thorough manner with a representative. After the manufacturer has established the business at one place he could proceed to another town, and so the entire field could be covered, and it is a large one.

The Mexican is a lover of music. It is nothing strange to hear a peon whistling selections from the latest operas. Music to be popular here must be such as is or can be understood by the people, whose taste in this direction is the direct result of Spanish teachings. Mexico boasts of a number of good composers, and the so-called folk songs are very numerous and in many instances pleasing even to foreigners. Dance music is preferred

by the masses, and this is almost universal, if the national dances peculiar to the different sections of this country are accepted.

A list of music dealers in Veracruz can be seen at the Bureau of Manufactures, Washington, D. C.

#### *Smoked, Salted, and Canned Meats, Pork and Lard.*

Of the comparatively small imports of smoked and salted meats, nearly 90 per cent is sent from the United States, Cuba being next; of sausages, hams, etc., 75 per cent is imported from the United States, the rest from Germany, Spain, France, and Italy in the order named; in dry, salted, smoked, and pickled fish Norway stands first, the United States second, and China third. In canned meats and fish of all kinds, Spain stands first with \$297,000 out of a total of \$640,000 in Mexican silver in 1904, the United States being second with \$209,000, and France third with \$75,000, the only other countries contributing over \$10,000 being Germany, Norway, and Great Britain.

Spain's predominance over the United States in this respect is due to Spaniards, as the grocery business is mainly in their hands. This has helped to cultivate a taste for Spanish canned meats as well as for many grades of Spanish wines, Spanish preserves, and other sweets. American exporters already control the market for hams, bacon, etc., but, in regard to canned meats, they should consult the tastes of the country more than has been done and put forward the particular lines for which trade is already established.

There can not, under present conditions, be a great market for canned meats in Mexico. Their price puts them wholly out of the reach of the masses of the people, even if they ever considered their purchase. Fresh meat is still a luxury with them, and they live in a grazing country. Pork, far more than beef or mutton, is the poor man's meat in Mexico, though this is more conspicuously the case in certain regions than in others. Lard is a local product everywhere, on a small or large scale, and forms one of the items most actively bartered in the town markets. It is used by all classes in every day cooking and in the preparation of a very large proportion of their dishes, yet lard is imported from the United States in considerable quantity.

#### *Dairy Products.*

Mexico can not be called a butter-consuming country, as bread is commonly eaten without butter. Lard is its substitute to a great extent, where it has a substitute. Nevertheless the use of butter is increasing among Mexicans themselves, and the foreign population, especially the Americans, constitute a

growing demand for butter that does not seem to be met by the starting of small dairy farms near cities, mining camps, etc. More than three-fourths of the butter imported comes from the United States, Spain and Denmark supplying nearly all the remainder. It is imported mainly in cans, but the importation of fresh butter in rolls from the dairies in the lower Mississippi Valley region has been steadily increasing.

#### **Argentina.**

There is practically no direct trade communication between the United States and Buenos Aires, all American goods imported being sent by the way of England. The service between Europe and Buenos Aires is regular and the trips are frequent, taking but from 16 to 20 days, whereas voyages to the United States frequently take from 25 to 50 days. The chief improvement in the matter of shipping facilities between the United States and Buenos Aires should be the establishment of a fast steamship line between the two countries, as the present service may be considered the greatest drawback to the upbuilding of American trade with the Argentine Republic.

Only one American steamship has called at the port in the past two years. While there are but five American export and import firms in Buenos Aires, American goods are handled by many of the 300 commercial houses.

The principal imports into Buenos Aires are dry goods, preserved goods, manufactured articles, oils, machinery and tools, agricultural implements, lumber, and railroad materials. Of these England furnishes 34 per cent; Germany, 15 per cent; United States, 13 per cent; Italy, 10 per cent; and France, 9 per cent.

There is at this port an organized chamber of commerce which appears to be impartial in its attitude toward foreign countries, and where a few American technical and trade journals are to be found. Only members are admitted to this chamber of commerce. In the American consulate-general a number of trade publications are kept on file for the free use of the public.

In Buenos Aires there are about fifteen foreign banks, not one being American, and it is thought that the establishment of an up-to-date American banking house would greatly better the country's interests in Argentina. Much foreign capital is invested in Buenos Aires, mostly English, all railways, street-car lines, gas plants, etc., being owned and operated by English or German syndicates, and it is noted that English and German capital continues to be invested in such enterprises. There appears to be an equally good opportunity for the investment of American money.

With a view of extending American trade with Buenos Aires, and the Argentine Republic

generally, it is suggested that American commercial houses be established and Spanish-speaking agents be sent with a view of ascertaining the needs of the people and building up a *bona fide* and permanent trade. This, together with good packing and good and fast transportation, would tend to improve the outlook for the sale of American goods. Trade with Buenos Aires may be materially increased if given sufficient attention. The following Massachusetts merchandise would find a good market:

- Watches.
- Garden tools.
- Haying tools.
- Farm harness.
- American novelties.
- Carts and carriages.
- Builders' hardware.
- Well-boring machinery.
- Dairy goods — large demand.
- Groceries and canned goods.
- Leather, and all manufactures of.
- Electrical appliances and supplies.
- Stoves, especially all kinds of oil stoves.
- Machine tools and all classes of small machines.
- Agricultural machinery — sales already very large.
- Wall paper — market must be studied for designs and size.

#### *Trade-marks.*

The appropriation of foreign trade-marks has reached a very serious stage in recent years, and if manufacturers do not wish to become the victims of unscrupulous business firms or individuals (provided some of them have not already experienced this sharp practice) they should take warning from the experience of others. Until the Argentine law is changed the registry of trade-marks is the only way to combat this class of men, who make it their object to profit by the brains and business ability of their superiors.

If an Argentine firm usurps the mark of a foreign manufacturer and registers it, then the real owner is helpless, for the new owner can take legal action against the real owner of the mark for imitating or fraudulent use of same.

#### **Brazil.**

For several months past there has been a notable lack of tonnage in shipping from the United States to Brazil. This state of things is not only unusual, but it reflects most significantly upon the general shipping situation between Brazil and the United States. The bulk of such trade has consisted of coffee, which has long employed many thousands of tons of shipping each year. In earlier days the flour, lard, and preserved meat trade of the United States with Brazil offered considerable employment for this shipping on a return trip from the United States to Brazil after voyages with loads of coffee for American ports. The shipping between the two countries was

profitable and prosperous. Gradually, however, the trade of the United States with Brazil in flour and provisions has declined until there is very little employment for ships on that account sailing from American for Brazilian ports. In the meanwhile American consumption of coffee has continually increased, causing a one-sided situation, with no return freight. A three-cornered trade route was then built up, vessels sailing with coffee from Brazil to an American port, thence to an European port with American produce, then to Brazilian ports with European goods. This triangular route caused a further decline in America's Brazilian sales with the decreased freight facilities for shipment of goods. Thus it has been difficult to improve steamship service between the two countries, and the necessity for a ship subsidy to aid American interests is evident.

There has been no very notable increase in the shipment of American soil products to Brazil in the last few months, but there has been a notable increase in the shipments of machinery, railway material, and similar commodities. The demand for tonnage for Brazil in the United States has led to a direct and notable interference with the triangular course of trade by way of England, and several ships have made direct trips from New York to Rio de Janeiro, abandoning their Liverpool run for the time being at least. Exports to Brazil were \$4,196,142 larger in 1906 than in 1905.

Whether the present course of freight matters, based upon increased shipments of American goods to Brazil, means that the situation is so permanently changed that improvements in the service between Brazil and the United States can be looked for as a natural trade development remains to be seen. It seems safe to say, however, that if anything is to be done in the way of Government action in behalf of Brazilian-American shipping now is the time to do it. In the meanwhile the Brazilian company now maintaining a service between the two countries is promising in the very near future two 5,000-ton vessels with the latest conveniences and facilities for this service. Even when they are to be had, however, the long trip from one country to the other in them, due to the many ports at which they touch, will militate against their being used for through service.

#### BRAZIL'S NEW TARIFF.

The budget law, involving tariff changes, which was passed by the Brazilian Congress and given effect under date of December 30, 1906, is important to the United States chiefly in the fact that it continues in effect, until a new law is passed, all the preferential concessions in favor of certain products of the United States which were authorized in the budget act of a year ago and given effect by presidential decree of June 30, 1906. By the pro-

visions of this year's budget act there is to be no break in the course of these preferentials. Under the provisions of the act 20 per cent preferential reduction is made in the customs duty charged upon the following manufactures of Massachusetts:

Manufactures of rubber: walking sticks, canes, whips, etc., pouches, dolls, toys of all kinds, buttons, boots, engine packing, combs, rulers, penholders, fans, belts, braces, garters, cords, tapes, dentists' rubber, sticks, tubes and branches for flowers, rubber sheeting, tubes, threads, sheets, and mats—all of rubber; marking inks, designers' ink, drawing ink and other liquid inks and printers' inks in tubes or cylinders; paints and varnishes; typewriters; ice boxes; pianos; condensed milk; and watches and clocks.

These preferentials in favor of American products over all others are continued, and by the terms of the law just passed the item of typewriters is defined to include linotypes and cash registers, thus bringing these two notable American products within the scope of the 20 per cent preferentials.

#### CANNED MEATS.

There is a large amount of canned meat sold in Montevideo, Uruguay, when it is considered that this is essentially a meat-producing country and that native meats are only about five cents a pound for the best quality. The canned meats sold are imported from England, France, Germany, and Italy. The English importations include some American brands. In addition to the demand for local consumption, there is a considerable quantity sold as ships' supplies. American canned-meat products have of late not been in favor on account of the extensive circulation of the stories of the recent American meat investigation reprinted in local newspapers. Now that this has been discounted by strict inspection by the United States Government, a good business might be secured in Uruguay for canned-meat products if the proper effort were made. A list of importers of such products at Montevideo is on file at the Bureau of Manufactures, Washington, D. C.

#### CHILE.

There are two freight lines between Valparaiso and New York that sail under the British flag. One makes two sailings per month and the other one sailing. The freight rate is fair, being 21 cents per cubic foot. They give very satisfactory service considering everything, but there should be one or two lines for this coast sailing under the American flag, and until this is the case England and Germany must be expected to have the best of the trade in this part of the world.

Something should be done to encourage American shipping if Massachusetts is to get the trade it should have in this part of South America, and the sooner the better for the interests of the United States in general.

Money and attention can be put to no better use than in building up American shipping.

Now is the time to make a strong move for the trade of this part of the world, as the feeling toward the United States is more friendly than for years, and American-made goods stand high. The American flag should be seen flying over steamers in this port every day instead of its being a rarity.

During 1905 the imports of Chile amounted to \$56,578,925, of which the United States furnished 10 per cent, nearly one-third of which was machinery and one-sixth oil; while Germany furnished 25 per cent, of which one-fifth was machinery and one-fourth textiles; and England furnished 37 per cent, of which less than one-tenth was machinery, while more than one-third was made up of textiles. It is plainly to be seen that America is in a position to supply this trade if the business men can get it. This can be secured if sufficient attention is given to it, and it is hardly fair to expect the exporter to bear all the burden, when the transportation facilities are against him. What is true of Chile as to foreign commerce is true of the other countries of the west coast of South America, which import in the aggregate more than \$150,000,000 of which the United States is not getting much more than 10 per cent.

It is timely to insert a warning against poor packing. It will do but little good to work up business if American exporters continue with such poor packing as is very often sent out. It is ruinous to business. A few cases of careless packing and the purchaser is discouraged and goes to some other country for his goods, and no one is to blame but the exporter.

The freight rates via Panama are nearly 50 per cent heavier than through the Straits of Magellan, and the time is usually no quicker. It is stated that the steamers direct from New York are of late fully loaded. The freight rate from European ports to Valparaiso varies from 14 cents per cubic foot for bar and strap iron to 60 cents per cubic foot for the highest class of freight. This rate is said to be cut to heavy shippers.

The following statement shows the number and annual tonnage of steamships entered at the port of Valparaiso, Chile:

NATIONALITY.	1904		1905	
	Number	Tons	Number	Tons
British, .	204	499,162	211	528,227
German, .	87	248,012	90	265,462
Chilean, .	58	93,171	55	85,606
French, .	8	24,799	7	21,580
Belgian, .	1	3,009	2	5,966
Danish, .	-	-	2	5,060
Argentine, .	-	-	2	2,442
Dutch, .	-	-	1	2,327
Norwegian, .	1	2,177	-	-
American, .	1	743	-	-
<b>TOTAL,</b> .	<b>360</b>	<b>871,073</b>	<b>370</b>	<b>916,670</b>

#### Uruguay.

During the last fiscal year but 16 American vessels arrived at Montevideo, against 3,489 of other nationalities, 1,414 of the latter being British. In the past year but 15 American vessels cleared from Montevideo, five taking cargo, against 128 foreign vessels, 39 of the latter taking cargo, 28 of which were British. One of the first steps necessary to be taken in improving the commercial relations between the United States and Uruguay would be to establish a first-class steamship line between the two countries, with ample accommodations for passengers and freight. One of the greatest hindrances at the present day is the length of time which elapses in receiving goods and mail.

The imports into Uruguay are principally beverages, comestibles and spices, tobacco and cigars, ready-made clothing, raw material, machinery, soft foods and materials, and live animals. There are no available statistics indicating the countries from which these goods are imported, but most of the importations were from Europe.

There is not an all-American commercial house in Montevideo, American goods being sold from catalogues on order from the purchaser. There is one exporting house and an importing house, of which one member of the firm is an American. Compare with this the 356 foreign importing firms and 78 exporting firms and it will be seen that the sellers of other nations in Uruguay, with their wholesale commercial houses, merchant vessels, prompt and dependable mail service, and local solicitors to investigate the needs of the trade, are much better equipped than those of the United States. England has 17, Germany 40, France 24, Italy 110, and Spain 58 importing houses located here.

While Uruguay has adequate banking facilities for the proper conduct of business, not one American bank is to be found in Montevideo. There are sixteen banks in the city, four of which are English and eight native. It is thought that the establishment of an American banking house, with branches in surrounding cities, would greatly serve to promote American business.

Owing to extensive trade with Uruguay and public and private enterprises here, England is naturally the most favored among foreign nations by the chamber of commerce, where an insufficient number of American technical and trade journals are to be found on file. A large number of such publications are, however, filed in the American consulate.

Openings for trade with Uruguay appear to be numerous, as all classes of American merchandise are in demand and could be readily sold. Opportunity is also open for investment of American capital in the development of railroads, river navigation, stock raising, and operating the numerous mines.

**Exhibitions, Fairs, and Conventions.***Germany.*

A permanent commission for exhibitions has just been established here. It will busy itself with matters pertaining to all large fairs, whether they be held in Germany or in foreign countries. It will be the purpose of the new organization to obtain exact data as to the aims, extent, and possibilities of each exhibition planned. Fully informed, it will be in a position to give precise practical directions to inquirers, with the object of promoting German manufacture and trade. It has happened in the past that an exhibition has been projected abroad with some well-sounding name, and under plausible auspices, which has been largely speculative, of very limited compass, where medals and highest awards are supposed to have been granted for a pecuniary consideration. To protect exhibitors against such eventualities will be one of the objects of the commission.

The exhibitions to be held in Germany during the current year are given below. Although many of them are of only local importance, it is not unlikely that certain Massachusetts interests could be advantageously represented and developed. For instance, the agricultural fairs can be utilized for the display of our farming machinery. In machinery and industrial exhibitions, such as held here from time to time, there is a wide range for remunerative business. An exposition for out-of-door sports gives an excellent chance for showing portable houses, camping outfits, gunning supplies, fishing tackle, and golf equipment, and where our motor boats could be offered as well as at Kehl. In the poultry shows, incubators, brooders, and various patent poultry-house appliances have an excellent chance.

Agricultural exhibitions will be held at Triebsee, Pomerania, at Rostock and at Freising in June. Floricultural shows at Bremen in June and September, at Dresden and Mannheim in May, and at Essen-Ruhr in the fall. Poultry shows in June at Rostock in connection with the agricultural exhibition, and some time in the Fall one at Lubbenau, district of Calau, and another at Gruna, Saxony. Army, navy, and colonial exhibition at Berlin in June. Horticultural shows at Brandenburg on the Haardt in the Summer, and at Zerbst in the Fall. An exhibition for agriculture in Schonsee in West Prussia, and an aeronautic exhibition at Chemnitz has been proposed, the dates not yet determined.

There are assuredly many opportunities among these minor German exhibitions that ought to be availed of by some of our manufacturers and exporters.

Announcement is made of the twenty-first annual agricultural fair (*Wanderausstellung der Deutschen Landwirtschaft-Gesellschaft*), which will be held from June 6 to 11 of this year, at Dusseldorf. This fair is by far the

most important exposition of its kind on the Continent, and affords exceptional opportunity not only to exhibit American machinery, but to study and compare European machinery, live stock, and other agricultural products. The amount of such products and machinery which is brought together at these fairs is large and covers a wide range. Many American concerns have made exhibits at these fairs from year to year, and it would seem the number could be increased with profit. Parties interested in gasoline engines, the use of alcohol for light and fuel, or in the application of science to agriculture, will be likely to find considerable of interest in the June fair. Agricultural products, including live stock, machinery and tools used in agriculture, and other aids to agriculture, form the chief departments of these fairs. According to the press, the association's address is Landwirtschaft-Gesellschaft, Berlin, S. W. 11, Desauerstrasse 14.

*Hygienic Congress.*

A. M. Thackara, consul-general at Berlin, advises that for the purpose of facilitating discussions before the Fourteenth International Congress for Hygiene and Demography, to be held at Berlin from September 23 to 29, 1907, eight sections have been formed, each with its president, vice-president, and secretary. They are:

Hygienic microbiology and parasitology; dietetic hygiene, hygienic physiology; hygiene of childhood and schools; professional hygiene and care of the working classes; combating infectious diseases and care of the sick; hygiene of dwellings, townships, and waters, and hygiene of traffic, life-saving; military, colonial, and naval hygiene; and demography. Besides the congress there will be an exhibition in hygiene and means of life-saving arranged under the management of Prof. Dr. Rubner, Hessicher Strasse, 4, Berlin, N. Additional information may be obtained from members of the committees or from Doctor Nietner, Eichhorn Strasse, 9, Berlin, W., Germany.

*France.*

The International Maritime Exposition to be held at Bordeaux, from May to November, will be under the official patronage of the French Government, of the General Council of the Gironde, and of the Municipality, the Chamber of Commerce, and the Philomathic Society of Bordeaux. An official copy of the general regulations that will govern the exposition has been received through the Department of State by the Bureau of Manufactures, Washington, D. C., which may be examined by persons interested. The American embassy at London states that the British consul at Bordeaux has been appointed by his Government to act as commissioner to the

exposition for the purpose of assisting British exhibitors, and that a committee of the latter engaged in shipbuilding will display ship models and the many and varied accessories that go to make up the ship of to-day, whether warship, liner, cargo, or pleasure boat.

Great progress has been made in the construction of the several buildings, and the contractor promises to have them all ready some time before the opening on May 1. The grand palace and the main buildings, covering an area of about 10 acres, are all so connected by arcades that they form practically one great building.

The exposition is designed to commemorate the centennial anniversary of the successful application of steam to navigation by Robert Fulton. The motive for the celebration of this event may be found in the fact that in 1803 — four years before his success on the Hudson, with the "Clermont" — Fulton made his initial essays in steam navigation in France. Fulton's experiments appear to have been at first with the submarine boat, which he christened the "Nautilus," and in which he was submerged for five consecutive hours on one occasion in 1801. This demonstration appears to have been at Brest, in the presence of the French Admiral Villaret, and it is recorded that by the use of torpedoes Fulton managed to blow up a boat in the harbor.

With his second submarine boat he gave a demonstration on the Seine at Paris, on which a commission appointed by Napoleon Bonaparte reported favorably. Nothing, however, came of the submarine boat, and it was subsequently, in 1803, that Fulton treated the Parisians to the spectacle of a small boat propelled by steam on the Seine with two bateaus tied astern. A chronicler of that time describes it as "a boat moved by wheels like a chariot."

The exposition, it is officially stated, is to be international in character and to illustrate the history of navigation. The world's marvelous progress in the art of shipbuilding and the science of navigation is to be shown by a collection of models of every kind of water craft, ancient and modern. All that pertains to ocean geography and all industrial and artistic products having relation to maritime affairs are to find prominent place. There is to be a congress of naval architects, and there are to be lectures on science, art, industry, commerce, and political and social economy. There are also to be boat races on the River Garonne, in which the management hopes that competing crews from several nations will take part.

The grand palace is to be devoted to the illustration of maritime history, ocean geography, ancient and modern painting, sculpture, architecture, and horticulture. Materials for the construction of boats and ships, diving and life-saving apparatus, fishing appliances, ship's

provisions, sea food, and motor machines (land and water) will have considerable space devoted to their exposition. In the place allotted to the navy there is to be a special exhibit of submarine boats, guns, torpedoes, ships' armor, and equipment. Aeronautics, electrical apparatus, signals, wireless telegraphy, telephones, pumps, refrigerating apparatus, heating and ventilating appliances, port and harbor works, sea and river sports, art bronzes, lace tissues, linen and tapestry, traveling articles, glassware, porcelains, china, cutlery, and musical instruments are also to have spaces devoted to them.

This exposition should afford excellent opportunity for American manufacturers to show the superiority of their products and extend their trade. Manufacturers of motor boats, light motors and dynamos, canoes, lifeboats, diving, and life-saving appliances, fishing apparatus, optical and nautical instruments, or those who make anything which relates to navigation or ships, will find a good chance here to advertise their goods and increase their business. A ground plan of the exposition and the regulations forwarded by the consul will be loaned by the Bureau of Manufactures, Washington, D. C., to interested persons.

An appropriation of \$15,000 was made at the recent session of Congress "to enable the Government of the United States to participate in the International Maritime Exposition to be held at Bordeaux, France, from May 1 to October 31, 1907."

#### *Belgium.*

The Department of State has received from the Belgian Minister announcement of the Second International Congress of "Gouttes de Lait" — Protection of Child Life — which will be held at Brussels from September 12 to 16, 1907.

This congress is to be held in accordance with resolutions passed at the general meeting of the first congress of "Gouttes de Lait" at Paris in 1905. There will be two sections. The first will be concerned with philanthropic and social questions; the second with the scientific problems of infant hygiene. The congress will consist of Belgian and foreign members who have subscribed beforehand the sum of 20 francs (\$3.96). Any institution for the protection of child life may be represented by a delegate, in whose name the subscription should be paid.

An exhibition of infant hygiene will be organized and opened during the congress. Copies of the announcement and program of the congress, with a list of patrons, are in possession of the Bureau of Manufactures, Washington, D. C. Communications and inquiries concerning the congress should be addressed to the general secretary, Dr. Eugene Lust, Rue de la Limite, 27, Brussels.

***Great Britain.***

The Franco-British International Exhibition of Science, Arts, and Industries will be held in London in 1908.

The International Exhibition of Technical Papers and Periodicals, Graphical Trades, and Advertising will be held in the Exhibition Hall of Industrial Arts in London in the months of May and June, 1907.

The Fifteenth Annual Exhibition and Market of the Grocery, Provision, Oil, and Italian Warehouse, and Allied Trades will be held at the Royal Agricultural Hall, Islington, London, from September 21 to 28, 1907.

***Unexplained Imports.***

Certain articles of manufacture appear in the reports of imports from Germany which are unexplainable, and the wonder is that it should be necessary to go outside of the United States to purchase them. It would seem that these figures ought to invite the special attention of Massachusetts manufacturers.

The very commonplace character of the items in the list are needles and pins, worth \$160,000, machine-made articles in which the United States has long been a leading producer; hooks and eyes, \$4,000; various kinds of paper, \$381,000 (\$38,000 of it being wrapping paper); steel, \$89,000; machinery, \$28,000; woolen cloth, \$640,000; artificial silk, \$93,000; and bleaching powders, \$73,000, etc. All the articles named are of common manufacture in the United States, and yet they form the bulk of the \$1,650,000 worth of exports from the district in question for the year.

How far the causes underlying this peculiar feature of trade are valid causes it is not our purpose to inquire. It must be that, in many cases, they are not valid, and that to produce at home vast amounts of what we now buy abroad offers at least as easy a problem as increasing our sales of manufactures in countries like Germany. One needs but little insight into German manufacturing to see with what watchful care their home market is guarded, and the dismay similar figures to those quoted would create if found on the other side of the ledger.

***Wanted.***

[Wherever a "file number" is mentioned in the following notes, it is to be understood that the names and addresses, together with additional information, may be obtained from the Bureau of Manufactures, Department of Commerce and Labor, Washington, D. C. The file number must always be mentioned when writing for more definite information.]

***Leather.***—An Italian firm desires communication with American exporters of sole and upper leathers. File No. 736.

***Cotton, wheat, and jute sacks.***—Jean A. Couvela, Piraeus, Greece, wishes to corre-

spond with American firms who can supply these goods.

***Stoves.***—A well-known dealer in heating apparatus in Northern Italy desires communication with American manufacturers of stoves. File No. 754.

***Screw machines.***—Steinfeldt & Co., Viehofen, Austria, want to buy automatic machines to produce daily from 500 to 1,000 gross of wood screws.

***Cotton goods.***—A concern in China and Korea, which deals largely in American piece goods, is anxious to act as agent for American manufacturers. File No. 729.

***Kitchen wares.***—An old established house in Italy desires communication with American manufacturers of all kinds of kitchen utensils and enameled wares. File No. 752.

***Oils and fats.***—An importing house of South Europe desires to communicate with American exporters of corn oil, fish oil, fish cakes, and bone greases or fats. File No. 760.

***Machinery.***—A firm in Italy wishes to get in touch with American manufacturers of steam engines, steam drills, machine tools of all kinds, and all kinds of excavating machinery. File No. 751.

***Clothing materials.***—A Latin-American firm manufacturing cheap clothing desires correspondence with manufacturers and exporters of such materials as enter the articles they produce. File No. 759.

***Footwear.***—Large dealer in footwear with stores in several Italian cities wishes correspondence with American manufacturers of medium-priced men's and women's shoes; also tennis shoes. File No. 755.

***Printed calicoes.***—Consul Wm. H. Bradley furnishes the name of a British firm which inquires for the addresses of firms in the United States who can supply them with American printed calicoes. File No. 756.

***Representation in Italy.***—An Italian business man speaking fluently the English, French, and German languages, with a thorough knowledge of Italian business customs, desires general agency for American firms. File No. 737.

***Leather and rubber goods.***—Bernhard Bruckner, XV Mariahilfenstrasse, 158, Vienna, Austria, writes: "I would like to get agencies for American leather and shoe manufacturers and for manufacturers of hygienic rubber specialties."

*Barrels.* — Consul-General Philip C. Hanna advises American cooperage companies, which manufacture barrels in large quantities, to correspond with a Mexican concern which is in a position to constantly use large quantities of American barrels. File No. 758.

*Plumbers' supplies.* — An American consul in a Spanish-American city of 100,000 population reports that with the completion of the new water-works and sewerage system there, and with a building boom in progress, there is a great demand for bathroom, closet, washroom and kitchen plumbing goods. File No. 768.

*Refrigerators.* — A consul in South America advises that there is a good demand in the city in which he is located for good refrigerators, most of those now on the market being of the cheaper grades. A list of firms in the city interested in this line of goods will be furnished. Correspondence should be conducted in Spanish. File No. 766.

*Gasoline engines.* — H. J. Reesink & Co., Havenstraat, Zutphen, Holland, write: "We are in the market for first-class gas, gasoline oil, or benzine engines. Kindly let us know whether there are makers of these machines in Massachusetts who are building the same styles of engines as built by the Kneeland Manufacturing Company, from 3 to 15 horsepower."

*Machinery.* — Herman Manheim, Nizankowice, Galizien, Austria-Hungary, writes: "I can find market for the following American machines: Agricultural machinery, hayrakes, harrows, grass and grain mowing and binding machines, motors, automobiles, carriages, engines, typewriters and accessories. Kindly recommend suitable firms to send me without delay catalogues and prices."

*Carriages.* — An American consulate in Asia has had inquiries for carriages with pneumatic and rubber tires. The parties interested wish to receive particulars, illustrations, wholesale prices, discounts, and specifications regarding light road carts for one or two horses or ponies, and with rubber or pneumatic tires; also phætons with pneumatic or rubber tires with and without rumble. File No. 783.

*Stationery.* — Consul-General Iddings reports that tenders will be received at the Secretariat of the Ministry of Finance, Cairo, Egypt, for the supply of an extensive line of stationery required for the Government Departments during the years 1908 and 1910. Persons wishing to submit tenders may obtain specifications, printed in French, from the Bureau of Manufactures. Tenders will be received until May 15, 1907. File No. 786.

*Piping, fittings, saws, etc.* — Oyanguren y Guevara, Bilbao, Spain, writes: "Now that customs duties have come down considerably for American products, we believe that the manufacturers can compete in this market. Therefore, we would like to enter into correspondence with some first-class people willing to do business here. Makers of wrought-iron piping and fittings, files, brass cocks, saw blades, and other similar goods are invited to write."

*Machine-shop requirements.* — An American consul-general in Europe sends the name of a business man who wishes to be put in communication with American firms manufacturing the following machines: Lathes, milling machines, screw machines, vertical chucking and turning machines, sawing machines, and grinding machines. The inquirer is in the market for the aforesaid articles, and requests that the firms in communicating with him make their offers, giving full details and prices in order to save delay. File No. 730.

*Textile waste.* — Consul J. I. Brittain writes from Kehl that a German merchant would like to be placed in communication with manufacturers or wholesale dealers in cotton waste, clean cotton cuttings, clean linen cuttings, and old silk or old linen. He would prefer to purchase old silk or old linen. The merchant says there is a great demand in Germany for textile waste, and that he could make sales of immense quantities. The material is wanted for cleaning machinery, guns, etc. File No. 770.

*Wall paper.* — A Scottish manufacturing company making a specialty of wall cloths, textures, and relief work is prepared to handle a general line of American wall paper. Having its own distributing agencies throughout the country, independent of the British wall-paper trust, this company is in a good position to introduce American paper hangings. The manager says that the company's warehouses are ample for large stocks of wall paper, which would be required to supply the retail trade promptly and continuously. File No. 738.

*Hotel furnishings.* — An American consul-general advises that some large new tourist hotels are to be erected in the country to which he is assigned, which seems to afford an opening for the sale of American hotel equipment and supplies. File No. 668.

*Textiles, machinery, hardware.* — Two general mercantile and importing firms of Cape Colony desire correspondence with Massachusetts manufacturers and exporters of cotton and woolen goods, agricultural implements, hardware, etc. File No. 695.

*Wood-working machinery.* — Consul Gebhard Willrich, of St. Johns, sends the name of a new company just organized to manufacture hardwood flooring, and hammer and hatchet handles, and is in the market for machinery. Mr. Willrich also furnishes a list of importers and buyers of wood-working machinery. File No. 823.

*Agricultural implements.* — Consul-General T. St. John Gaffney reports that the German farmer, although conservative, is awakening to the importance of using efficient implements, and that there is a large field for these in Germany, especially for those suited to small farms. Mr. Gaffney furnishes the name of the largest manufacturer and agent for agricultural implements in Dresden. File No. 824.

*Paper and stationery.* — An American consul reports a request from a publishing house for prices, discounts, sizes, etc., on paper supplies. File No. 807.

*Patented novelties.* — A New York exporter writes to the Bureau of Manufactures: "We have had a number of foreign buyers calling on us recently who are desirous of securing patented novelties of every description. If you could put us in touch with manufacturers we are quite sure that the parties will purchase very large quantities." File No. 810.

*Fruit and canned goods specialties.* — An extensive detailed table of the classes of proprietary food specialties salable as groceries in Great Britain is forwarded by Consul Albert Halstead from Birmingham. Price and market particulars are named. Those interested may copy or examine the report at the Bureau of Manufactures. File No. 830.

*Agency in Scotland.* — The Bureau of Manufactures is in receipt of a letter from a business man in Scotland who desires to correspond with large American exporters with a view to establishing an agency in that country for the sale of American products. He now represents a London house in the grocery and provision trade, and with several assistants covers the whole of Scotland, and states that he is thoroughly acquainted with the field. File No. 832.

*Cotton goods.* — An American consul in Europe forwards the name of the largest wholesale and retail dealer in cotton goods in a certain city who would gladly receive samples and quotations of American sheetings and enter into correspondence on the matter. Samples should be full width and at least one foot in length. The consul believes that American cotton sheetings and similar plain cotton goods not involving much labor could find a market there if well pushed.

*Cotton goods.* — A commission merchant of the Levant desires to enter into business relations with manufacturers of American T-cloths, Cabots, long cloths, twills, sheetings, and cotton goods generally. The merchant has been established many years, and will give bank references as to his standing. The business he desires to do, however, will be cash upon presentation of bill of lading. Competition in these lines in the Levant is cut so close that he desires to deal directly with manufacturers. He recently failed to place a large order for Cabots through an American commission agent through a narrow margin, and now desires to correspond directly with the manufacturers. He now has customers for \$25,000 worth of cotton goods monthly, and if a satisfactory arrangement could be made the business might be extended indefinitely, since there is a large business done in this line in his commercial field. File No. 882.

*Stocks and dies.* — A German firm desires to be placed in direct communication with American exporters of stocks and dies used in sanitary engineering. File No. 866.

*Rubber woven goods.* — An European manufacturer has opened a factory to make stays and corsets. He is anxious to buy American made india-rubber woven goods for stay and corset ribbons. Manufacturers are invited to communicate with the firm direct or with the American consulate supplying the information. File No. 866.

*Soap.* — An European wholesale soap salesman wishes to get in communication with American soap makers who desire to sell their soap in the country in which he is located. He informs an American consul that there is really a good field there for American soap. File No. 804.

*Cotton fabrics.* — Consul Soren Listoe, of Rotterdam, forwards the names of two firms in the Netherlands which have frequently expressed their willingness to import American cotton fabrics, provided the goods compete in price with the articles manufactured there. Mr. Listoe also furnishes a list of the cotton goods' importers at Rotterdam. File No. 802.

*Veneering wood.* — Consul-General Pitcairn reports that a German concern is about to erect machines in its factory for the cutting of wood for veneering purposes, with an output of about 500,000 sheets a year, and is, therefore, in the market for American walnut and white wood veneering in blocks, wishing to buy such wood from the exporters in the United States and not through the importers in Hamburg and Rotterdam. File No. 801.

# PUBLICATIONS OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LABOR.

The following issues of the annual reports of this Department remain in print and will be forwarded when requested, upon receipt of the price set against each Part and bound volume.

## **Annual Report on the Statistics of Labor.**

**1893.** Bound in cloth, postage 15 cents. This report contains a special report on Unemployment, and Labor Chronology for the year 1893; this latter will be mailed separately for 5 cents.

**1896.** Bound in cloth, postage 15 cents. Contains, I. Social and Industrial Changes in the County of Barnstable (postage 5 c.); II. Graded Weekly Wages, 1810-1891, second part (postage 10 c.); III. Labor Chronology for 1896 (postage 5 c.).

**1897.** Bound in cloth, postage 15 cents. Contains, I. Comparative Wages and Prices, 1860-1897 (postage 5 c.); II. Graded Weekly Wages, 1810-1891, third part (postage 10 c.); III. Labor Chronology for 1897 (postage 5 c.).

**1898.** Bound in cloth, postage 25 cents. Contains, I. Sunday Labor (postage 5 c.); II. Graded Weekly Wages, 1810-1891, fourth part (postage 15 c.); III. Labor Chronology for 1898 (postage 5 c.).

**1899.** Bound in cloth, postage 15 cents. Contains, I. Changes in Conducting Retail Trade in Boston since 1874 (postage 5 c.); II. Labor Chronology for 1899 (postage 10 c.).

**1900.** Bound in cloth, postage 25 cents. Contains, I. Population of Massachusetts in 1900; II. The Insurance of Workingmen (postage 10 c.); III. Graded Prices, 1816-1891 (postage 15 c.).

**1903.** Bound in cloth, postage 15 cents. Contains, I. Race in Industry (postage 5 c.); II. Free Employment Offices in the United States and Foreign Countries (postage 5 c.); III. Social and Industrial Condition of the Negro in Massachusetts (postage 5 c.); IV. Labor and Industrial Chronology for 1903 (postage 5 c.).

**1905.** Bound in cloth, postage 20 cents. Contains, I. Industrial Education of Working Girls (postage 5 c.); II. Cotton Manufacturers in Massachusetts and the Southern States (postage 5 c.); III. Old-age Pensions (postage 5 c.); IV. Industrial Opportunities not yet Utilized in Massachusetts (postage 5 c.); V. Statistics of Manufactures: 1903-1904 (postage 5 c.); VI. Labor and Industrial Chronology (postage 5 c.).

**1906.** Part I. The Apprenticeship System (postage 5 c.); II. Trained and Supplemental Employees for Domestic Service (postage 5 c.); III. The Incorporation of Trade Unions (postage 5 c.); IV. Statistics of Manufactures: 1904-1905 (postage 5 c.); V. Labor Laws of Massachusetts (postage 5 c.).

## **Annual Report on the Statistics of Manufactures.**

Publication begun in 1886, but all volumes previous to 1892 are now out of print. Each volume contains comparisons, for identical establishments, between two or more years as to Capital Devoted to Production, Goods Made and Work Done, Stock and Materials Used, Persons Employed, Wages Paid, Time in Operation, and Proportion of Business Done. The Industrial Chronology which forms a Part of each report up to and including the year 1902 presents an Industrial Chronology by Towns and Industries. Beginning with the year 1903, the Industrial Chronology is combined with that for Labor under the title of Labor and Industrial Chronology and forms a part of the Annual Report on the Statistics of Labor. Beginning with the year 1904, the Annual Report on the Statistics of Manufactures was discontinued as a separate volume and now forms a part of the Report on Labor.

The volumes now remaining in print are given below, the figures in parentheses indicating the amount of postage needed to secure them:

**1892** (15 c.); **1893** (15 c.); **1894** (15 c.); **1895** (15 c.); **1896** (10 c.); **1897** (10 c.); **1898** (15 c.), contains also a historical report on the Textile Industries; **1899** (10 c.); **1900** (10 c.); **1902** (10 c.); **1903** (10 c.).

## **Special Reports.**

A Manual of Distributive Co-operation—1885 (postage 5 c.).

Reports of the Annual Convention of the National Association of Officials of Bureaus of Labor Statistics in America—1902, 1903, 1904, 1905, and 1906 (postage 5 cents each).

# LABOR BULLETINS

OF THE

## COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

These Bulletins contain a large variety of interesting and pertinent matter on the Social and Industrial Condition of the Workingman, together with leading articles on the Condition of Employment, Earnings, etc. The following numbers are the only ones now remaining in print, and will be forwarded upon receipt of five cents each to cover the cost of postage.

**No. 31, May, 1904.** City Labor in Massachusetts — Review of Employment and Earnings for Six Months ending April 30, 1904 — Average Retail Prices in 17 Cities — Bi-monthly Record of Strikes and Lock-outs — Editorial, Rev. Jesse H. Jones — Industrial Agreements — Current Comment on Labor Questions: Open and Closed Shop — Labor Legislation in Other States and Foreign Countries — Recent Legal Labor Decisions — Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest — Statistical Abstracts.

**No. 32, July, 1904.** Child Labor in the United States and Massachusetts — Net Profits of Labor and Capital — The Inheritance Tax — Absence after Pay Day — Pay of Navy Yard Workmen — Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1904 — Industrial Agreements — Current Comment on Labor Questions: Eight-hour Workday — Recent Legal Labor Decisions — Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest — Statistical Abstracts.

**No. 36, June, 1905.** Tramps and Vagrants. Census of 1905 — The Loom System — Weekly Day of Rest — Wages and Hours of Labor on Public Works — The Census Enumerators of 1905 — Average Retail Prices, October and April — Semi-annual Record of Strikes and Lockouts: Six Months ending April 30, 1905 — Labor Legislation in Massachusetts for 1905 — Current Comment on Labor Questions: Profit Sharing — Industrial Agreements — Recent Legal Labor Decisions — Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest — Statistical Abstracts.

**No. 42, July, 1906.** Non-Collectable Indebtedness — Pawnbrokers' Pledges — Hours of Labor in Certain Occupations — Labor Legislation in 1906 — Current Comment on Labor Questions: The Inheritance Tax — Industrial Information — Industrial Agreements — Trade Union Notes — Recent Legal Labor Decisions — Excerpts Relating to Labor, Industrial, Sociological, and General Matters of Public Interest — Statistical Abstracts.

**No. 43, September, 1906.** Organization of Trade Schools — Textile Schools

in the United States — Convention of Labor Bureaus — Maternity Aid — Stone-meal as a Fertilizer — Injunctions against Strikes and Lockouts — Industrial Information — Industrial Agreements — Trade Union Notes — Recent Legal Labor Decisions — Excerpts — Statistical Abstracts — Trade Union Directory for 1906.

**No. 45, January, 1907.** Income and Inheritance Taxes — Child Labor and the Census — Cotton Manufacturing in Massachusetts in 1850 and 1905 — Railroad Pensions in the United States and Canada — Convict Labor in Massachusetts — The President on Labor Matters — Trade Union Notes — Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor — Industrial Agreements — Current Comment: Old-age Pensions — Excerpts — Statistical Abstracts — Magazine Articles on Labor Topics, 1906.

**No. 46, February, 1907.** Unemployment in Massachusetts — State Free Employment Office — Insurance against Unemployment in Foreign Countries — The Metropolitan District — Population: Boston and Massachusetts — Labor Legislation: United States and Canada, 1906 — Industrial Agreements — Excerpts — Statistical Abstracts — Industrial Information.

**No. 47, March, 1907.** Boston's Tax-payers — Distributive Co-operation in New England — Industrial Education for Shoe Workers — Technical Education: England and the United States — Females in Gainful Occupations, 1895, 1905 — Strikes and Lockouts: Massachusetts, 1905-06 — State Free Employment Office — Labor Legislation in Foreign Countries, 1906 — Current Comment: Large versus Small Families — Trade Union Notes — Industrial Agreements — Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor — Excerpts — Statistical Abstracts — Industrial Information.

**No. 48, April, 1907.** Manufactures: Massachusetts and Other States, No. 1, Comparison for Certain Industries — The German Workman — Business Advertising — Postal Savings Banks — State Free Employment Office — Trade Union Notes — Industrial Agreements — Recent Court Decisions Relating to Labor — Excerpts — Statistical Abstracts — Industrial Information.







